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CANADIAN LIFE IN TOWN & COUNTRY

CANADIAN LIFE IN TOWN & COUNTRY

BY HENRY J. MORGAN
AND
LAWRENCE J. BURPEE

WITH TWENTY-EIGHT
ILLUSTRATIONS

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ROYAL, G.C.M.G., HIGH COM-
MISSIONER FOR CANADA IN
LONDON, "CANADA'S GREATEST
AND GRANDEST OLD MAN," THIS
VOLUME IS, BY PERMISSION,
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PREFACE

We have endeavoured in the following pages to present as accurate, comprehensive, and readable an account of Canadian Life in Town and Country as the limitations of the book would permit. For any unintentional inaccuracies or omissions in the text we beg the reader's indulgence.

We gladly avail ourselves of this opportunity of acknowledging our indebtedness, both in the supply of material for the book, and in the overseeing of certain of the proofs, to many friends here and elsewhere in Canada; and especially to Mr. Justice Girouard, of the Supreme Court of Canada; Mr. John Reade, M.A., literary editor of the *Montreal Gazette;* Mr. E. T. D. Chambers, of Quebec, the leading authority on Canadian sports; Lord Aylmer, Inspector-General of the Canadian Militia; Mr. Hayter Reed, of Quebec; Captain E. T. D. Morrison, D.S.O., editor of the *Ottawa Citizen;* and Mr. R. H. Cowley, M.A., Inspector of Public Schools for the County of Carleton.

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OTTAWA, CANADA,
May, 1905.

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CANADIAN LIFE IN TOWN & COUNTRY

CHAPTER I

THE NEW DOMINION

WHAT were the thoughts of John Cabot, standing upon the deck of his sturdy little Bristol craft, the *Matthew*, when, on that memorable June day in the year 1497, the welcome cry rang out from the masthead, 'Land ho!' and he turned to gaze with wondering eyes upon what he believed to be the eastern coast of the territory of the Grand Khan? Visions he must have had of glory and wealth—fabulous riches of marvellous countries, tales of which had been brought back to Europe by that most courageous traveller Marco Polo. Beyond this inhospitable coast lay, indeed, an Eldorado, but not the one he looked for. Cabot's wildest dreams never contemplated a new continent, holding vaster wealth than all the treasures of China and the Indies, and populated, four hundred years after his eyes rested upon it, by one hundred millions of people, speaking the language of his adopted country.

What he supposed to be the coast of 'far Cathay' was in reality the easternmost point of North America—the outpost of the Canada that was to be. Between the

adventurous captain and his Asiatic quest lay a vast continent, tenanted only by wandering tribes of Indians, but capable of supporting many times the population of Europe. On the strength of this discovery of John Cabot, and the subsequent voyages of his son Sebastian, England claimed the new land as her own; but the valley of the St. Lawrence and the unknown lands of the West were to see the rule of many generations of another race before they finally became England's foremost colony.

Four hundred years after Cabot's landfall, on the same day in June, a group of Canadian public men met at Halifax and unveiled a tablet, placed in the provincial building by the Royal Society of Canada, to commemorate his discovery. A notable feature was the presence at the ceremony of two men of Bristol, sent by Cabot's old town, to join in this tribute to his memory.

The Cabots, however, were content to skirt the outer coast of the continent, and it was not until 1534 that Jacques Cartier, a brave and enterprising seaman of St. Malo, sailed into the Gateway of North America, as far as the island of Anticosti. The following year he pushed his discoveries up the St. Lawrence to the island of Orleans, or the Isle of Bacchus, as he first called it, from the quantities of grapes he found there. He landed at the Indian village of Stadacona, at the foot of the towering rock on which Quebec now stands, and was well received by the natives. He then made his way up the great river to the island on which Montreal now stands.*

* Jacques Cartier's return to St. Malo has been graphically described by the ill-fated Canadian statesman, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, in a ballad which is familiar to every Canadian.

'He told them of a region, hard, iron-bound, and cold,
Nor seas of pearl abounded, nor mines of shining gold;
Where the wind from Thule freezes the word upon the lip,
And the ice in spring comes sailing athwart the early ship;
He told them of the frozen scene, until they thrilled with fear,
And piled fresh fuel on the hearth to make them better cheer.

Jacques Cartier, too, has his memorial in Canada. Three and a half centuries after his discovery of the St. Lawrence a noble monument was erected to his memory, and unveiled, in the presence of a hundred thousand French-Canadians, by the Governor-General of the Dominion.

But neither Cabot nor Jacques Cartier can fairly be regarded as the founder of Canada, or New France. That title belongs to Samuel Champlain. To his energy and unbounded faith in the new land, it was chiefly due that permanent settlements were established, both at Port Royal, in Acadie, and at Quebec. De Monts, Poutrincourt, and L'Escarbot are also names closely connected with the founding of Port Royal, but we need not here attempt to follow the history of that first Acadian settlement. Champlain's more important work began with the founding of Quebec in 1608. The earliest foundations of the future city were laid along the water's edge, at the foot of the cliff, on what is now known as 'the lower town.' Champlain made his headquarters here for twelve years, until he built a fort on the heights above, which was afterwards enlarged and known as the Castle of St. Louis, the famous home of the governors of New France, and of many of the governors under British rule.

All this time, however, British seamen and explorers

'But when he changed the strain, he told how soon is cast,
In early spring, the fetters that hold the waters fast;
How the winter causeway, broken, is drifted out to sea,
And the rills and rivers sing with pride the anthem of the free;
How the magic wand of summer clad the landscape to his eyes,
Like the dry bones of the just when they wake in Paradise.

. . . . . .

'He told them of the river, whose mighty current gave
Its freshness for a hundred leagues to ocean's briny wave;
He told them of the glorious scene presented to his sight,
What time he reared the cross and crown on Hochelaga's height;
And of the fortress cliff that keeps of Canada the key;
And they welcomed back Jacques Cartier from the perils over sea.'
('Jacques Cartier,' in 'Poems' of Thomas D'Arcy McGee.)

had not been idle. Martin Frobisher had visited Labrador in 1576; the following year Sir Francis Drake, on his voyage around the world, sailed up the Pacific coast of America until he reached the 48th parallel, and saw the 'sea of mountains' that now constitute the province of British Columbia. Six years later Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a half-brother of Raleigh's, established an English colony on the island of Newfoundland. Three years after Champlain founded Quebec, Henry Hudson sailed into the great inland sea, known by his name, and never returned. His cowardly crew turned him adrift, with his son and two faithful comrades, in an open boat, and abandoned them to their fate. Gilbert's short-lived colony was succeeded by others, until at length England obtained a firm foothold in Newfoundland, the oldest of her existing colonies. She was already securely established along the Atlantic seaboard, and a rivalry soon sprang up between the colonists of New England and New France, a rivalry which led to almost continual warfare along the border, in which the white antagonists were supported by Indian allies on either side.

In 1642 Ville-Marie was founded—or Montreal, as it was afterwards and is now called—by a colony of religious enthusiasts, under the chivalrous de Maisonneuve, first governor of the town. Ville-Marie was in the heart of the Iroquois country, and that aggressive Indian confederacy had not the slightest intention of tamely submitting to such an invasion of their domain. They patrolled the woods about the town so closely and constantly that it became impossible for the colonists to venture forth except in well-armed bands. Early in 1644 the Iroquois made a determined effort to capture Ville-Marie, and Maisonneuve, unaccustomed to Indian warfare, went out to give them battle in the open. This was exactly what the Iroquois had hoped for. Hidden behind trees, they waited until the French were almost among them, then attacked them on every side, until the French were compelled to retreat to the fort, carrying

their dead and wounded with them. Maisonneuve was the last man to enter the gate. As he retreated slowly towards it, an Iroquois sprang forward, hoping to capture the 'white chief' alive, but Maisonneuve turned swiftly, hurled the savage to the ground, and sprang through the gateway. The Place d'Armes, a well-known square in the heart of Montreal, commemorates this fight with the Iroquois, and is said to occupy the very ground of Maisonneuve's adventure.

About this period we come in contact with that rare combination of political sagacity and missionary zeal, the Jesuit. It is a remarkable fact that the Jesuits, expelled from even such countries as the South American Republics, with their exclusively Roman Catholic bias, should still find an asylum in Canada, but the explanation is perhaps not far to seek. Canada has known the Jesuit throughout all the earlier years of its history, but for the most part the less attractive political side of that composite character has been kept in the background, and he is remembered here only as the devoted, courageous, and self-sacrificing missionary, to whom death even in its most frightful forms was welcome, when it lay in the path of duty. Father Joques, one of the truest and most faithful missionaries that the world has ever seen, was captured by the Iroquois in 1642 and carried off to their lodges, where they inflicted upon him every torture that their relentless cruelty could devise; and the Iroquois had made a speciality of torture through many generations. They stopped short of his death, however, and on one of their trading expeditions to the Dutch settlements on the Albany, they took what was left of Father Joques with them. The Dutch governor, Van Corlaer, took pity on the Jesuit, and helped him to escape. He managed to get on board a vessel that was about to sail, and in time found his way to France. One would think that one such experience was enough for even the most devoted of missionaries, but it was not enough for Father Joques. He returned almost immediately to New France, and

resumed his missionary labours, volunteering always for the most difficult and dangerous posts. In the end he was again captured by his old foes, and faced martyrdom with a courage which won the admiration of even the hardened Iroquois, who judged of a man's courage by his ability to endure the most merciless torture without flinching. Two other devoted priests, Breboeuf and Lalemant, were captured by another Iroquois war party at one of their Huron missions and tortured, the former being scalped alive and boiling water poured on his head in mockery of the rite of baptism, after which both were burned at the stake. Father Daniel, also in charge of one of the Huron missions, was more fortunate. He was surprised by the Iroquois while conducting service in his little chapel, and fell, riddled with arrows, while endeavouring to rally the terror-stricken Hurons to defend the village.

The Iroquois, emboldened by these and other successes, pressed ever closer around the French settlements, until at length their insolence and scorn of the French reached such a height that they attacked them openly under the very walls of Quebec.

It was at this critical juncture, when the very existence of the colony hung in the balance, that a heroic young French nobleman, Dollard des Ormeaux, determined to give his life for the people. It was known that a great war party of Iroquois was on its way down the river Ottawa with the sworn intention of destroying Ville-Marie. The incident has been graphically described by a Canadian writer—

'Dollard, with sixteen comrades, vowed to shatter the wave ere it broke on the city, and to restore respect for French valour. They took the sacrament together, and went forth to the fate of Thermopylæ. Nor was this new Thermopylæ less glorious than the immortal one of old. With a handful of Huron and Algonquin allies they ascended the Ottawa, and entrenched themselves in the ruins of an old stockade at the pass of the Long

Sault rapids. Seven hundred yelling Iroquois swooped upon them, and were beaten back. Appalled at the terrific odds, most of Dollard's Indians forsook him. But one Algonquin chief, and a half-score of the more warlike Hurons, stood faithful. Men were these savages, of the old heroic pattern. For three days, burning with thirst—for there was no spring in the fort; fainting with hunger—for there was no time to eat; gasping with exhaustion, for the foe allowed them no respite—these heroes held the pass; and the bodies of the Iroquois were piled so deep before them that the palisades ceased to be a shelter. Not till all were slain but five, and these five helpless with wounds, did the enemy win their way in. Of the five, four died at once; and the last, having life enough left to make it worth while, was tortured. But the Iroquois had been taught a lesson. They slunk back to their lodges, and Montreal drew breath awhile in peace.'

But true heroism in New France was not confined to men; women, and even young girls, revealed on more than one occasion the courage and resourcefulness of tried warriors. One of the most memorable incidents in the early history of Canada—one which has been told and re-told by historians, poets, and novelists—is the plucky defence of her father's fort against a party of Iroquois, by the fourteen-year-old daughter of the Seigneur of Verchères. The fort was surprised during the absence of the Seigneur, but Madelaine, who had been out in the fields, managed to get in and shut the gates before the Indians overtook her. She then mustered her garrison, which consisted of two soldiers (who were so terror-stricken that they proposed to blow up the powder magazine), an old man, and Madelaine's two younger brothers. The two soldiers were sent to the blockhouse with the women, and Madelaine, with her brothers and the old man, determined to defend the fort to the last. Under cover of the night she had dummies prepared and placed behind the walls, and to further deceive the

savages, she and her plucky little garrison patrolled the fort throughout the night, calling out at intervals, so that the Iroquois were persuaded that the fort was fully garrisoned. For nearly a week the same ceaseless vigilance was maintained, the Indians never finding an opportunity to surprise the fort. At last reinforcements unexpectedly arrived, and the brave girl handed over the fort to an officer, who gazed in amazement at the garrison and commander who had for a week held off a band of veteran Iroquois.

The early history of Canada teems with romance; the story is one of constant conflict with the Indians, and with the New England colonists; of the martyr zeal of Jesuit and Récollet missionaries; of intrepid explorations by land and water throughout the vast unknown wilderness of the West; of the exploits of fur trader and *coureur de bois*, such as Radisson and Chouart (called Groseilliers), whose home was the wilderness, and who roamed far and wide, until at length the whole broad continent became their field, and they had journeyed north to Hudson's Bay, west to the Rockies, and south to the Gulf of Mexico.

With the death of Wolfe and Montcalm upon the historic Plains of Abraham, in 1759, this first period of Canadian history, with all its romance and picturesqueness, comes to an end. Canada now becomes a British colony, and the old *régime*, so hopeless from the point of view of practical colonising, but so attractive to the student of history or romance, gives place to the inevitable British struggle for self-government.

Whether we regard it from the point of view of territorial expansion, growth of population, development of natural resources, or the evolution of a national *rôle* or character, the Canada of to-day will be found vastly different from that of either the picturesque French period—the New France of Jacques Cartier and Champlain, Frontenac and Montcalm; or that period of transition which lay between the surrender of New France

to England and the confederation of the several colonies in 1867.

British North America now includes the whole of the northern half of the continent, with the exception of Alaska (which belongs to the United States), Greenland (which belongs to Denmark), and the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which constitute the last remaining possessions of France in North America, with the exception of the islands she holds in the West Indies. Canada includes all of British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland and a portion of the Labrador coast—a strip of coast on the mainland extending from Ungava Bay to the Straits of Belle Isle. The territory of Labrador is nearly as large as Europe, and is estimated to contain a total area of 3,745,574 square miles.

Geographically, Canada may be divided into three fairly distinct regions: (1) The mountainous country of the west, consisting of the province of British Columbia; (2) the prairies, those vast alluvial plains that cover the central portion of the continent, and which ages ago formed the bed of an immense sea; and (3) the woodland regions of the east, including the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. The width of the several belts from east to west is, mountain, 600 miles; prairie, 1000; and woodland, 2300. The five great lakes, with their connecting rivers, form a complete chain of waterways from the head of Lake Superior to the Atlantic, a distance of 2384 miles, and covering an area of about 100,000 square miles. The four other large Canadian lakes cover together an area of over 35,000 square miles. Hudson's Bay has an extreme length of 1000 miles, and is 600 miles wide across the bay proper. The Bay of Fundy, lying between the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, is 170 miles long, with an average width of 40 miles. These figures give a fair idea of the gigantic scale on which Nature built Canada. Her mountains,

plains, lakes, rivers, and forests are all in keeping with the character of the only country in the world bounded on three sides by three several oceans.

Canada is now so accustomed to confederation that little is thought of the changes it accomplished or of the hopes and aspirations it first awakened. The under-current toward independence, which might at the period referred to have seriously threatened the British connexion, was, through the patriotic efforts of a group of brilliant and far-sighted Canadian statesmen, of whom Sir John Macdonald, Sir George Cartier, Hon. George Brown, Sir Alexander Galt, Sir Charles Tupper, Hon. T. D. McGee, Hon. William Macdougall, and Sir S. L. Tilley were the leaders, merged in a counter-proposition —the principle of the practical independence of each British State in its own sphere, coupled with united action as an Empire. Lord Dufferin, who had arrived in Canada as Governor-General in 1872, was of invaluable assistance to the young Dominion at this critical period. His ripe statesmanship and undoubted interest in the welfare of Canada made him an invaluable ally. His speeches in Canada were filled with glowing descriptions of the country's resources and prospects, and inspiring prophecies as to its golden future. The feeling of honest pride and resourcefulness which had thus been awakened was presently moulded into a true national spirit. The old sectionalism gradually gave place to a full acceptance of the new confederation and all that it implied. From Nova Scotia to British Columbia, men no longer withered under the blight of the despised name Colonial, but proudly called themselves Canadians. The same broad spirit of patriotism inculcated by Macdonald and his early contemporaries has been fostered by every other Canadian Premier, from Alexander Mackenzie to Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and by such eminent provincial leaders as Sir Oliver Mowat, Sir W. R. Meredith, Hon. A. A. Taillon, Hon. A. R. Angers, Hon. F. G. Marchand, Sir H. Joly de Lotbinière, Hon. G. W. Ross, Hon.

E. J. Flynn, Hon. S. N. Parent, Hon. J. W. Longley, and Mr. J. P. Whitney. Independence, in the sense of political separation from the mother country, is no longer seriously considered in Canada, and is never likely to be re-awakened unless the mother country should forget her offspring.*

In effect Canada is, of course, already an independent country, free to collect and spend her own revenue, to raise her own armies and construct her own fleets, if she chooses so to do. When all is sifted, all race divisions borne with, all allowances made for the heat of colonial politics, and the possible errors of a young country, in Canada there is a greater degree of human freedom than exists in any other part of the world. At confederation the whole country, although divided in political opinion, was essentially conservative in thought and feeling, opposed to extreme organic change. In Upper Canada (as Ontario was formerly called), in some portions of Quebec, and in a lesser degree in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the agricultural population consisted of well-to-do farmers, who ate and dressed well, drove to church or market in their own spring waggons or carriages, and tilled their own lands. Since confederation the progress of this class has been marked.

The farm supplies much of the best brain to the Bar, the Church, and other learned professions. Scientific farming, studied at the national experimental farms, is developed in the home fields, and rural Canada now

* Among other Canadians who have been instrumental in moulding public opinion in the direction indicated have been Lord Strathcona, Sir Sandford Fleming, Lieut.-Col. G. T. Denison, Dr. G. R. Parkin, Senator Miller (senior member of the Canadian Lords), Senator Gowan, Hon. G. E. Foster, Sir H. E. Taschereau, Sir Alexander Lacoste, Judge Girouard, Judge Routhier, Sir G. A. Drummond, W. F. Cockshutt, M.P., G. E. Drummond, the late Principal Grant, Rev. Prof. Clark (Trinity University), John Reade, Alexander McNeill, ex-M.P., W. W. Campbell, C. Phillipps-Wooley, F. Blake Crofton, Thomas Macfarlane, Hon. J. I. Tarte, Archibald McGoun, Col. Hughes, Bishop Worrell, Benjamin Sulte, and H. H. Lyman.

shows smiling peace and plenty. In popular education, in agriculture and in manufactures, a firm basis had been laid even before the confederation of the provinces; and although for a time the dissatisfaction of Nova Scotia was a cloud on the fortunes of the Dominion of Canada, there was a bright future assured for her from within and without.

Of the total population of Canada, about one-third are French in language and descent. Five million, out of five and a half, are British born. Four and a half million are natives of Canada. Of the remainder, 201,000 were born in England; 101,000 in Ireland; and 83,000 in Scotland. The foreign-born residents number 278,000; of whom nearly 128,000 came from the United States; 31,000 from Russia; 28,000 from Austro-Hungary; and 27,000 from Germany.

In addition to the 1,600,000 French-Canadians in Canada, there are nearly a million in the United States, the accumulated result of many years' emigration. It is gratifying to note, however, that the tide has during the past year or two turned North again, and the French-Canadians are returning in ever-increasing numbers to their old home across the border. As the French population of Canada in 1760 was only 70,000, and there has been practically no French immigration since that date, and inter-marriages between French and English are extremely rare, this total of two and a half million French-Canadians furnishes a very remarkable example of natural increase.

Of the English-speaking population of the Dominion, one and a quarter million are of English descent; Irish, 988,000; Scotch, 800,000; German, 310,000; Dutch, 33,000; Scandinavian, 31,000; Russian, 28,000; Austro-Hungarian, 18,000; Chinese and Japanese, 22,000; negroes, 17,000; Indian population, 93,000, with 34,000 half-breeds, the latter consisting for the most part of prosperous and industrious farmers, in Manitoba and the North-West.

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Enthusiastic sons of the Dominion find something Imperial in this vigorous young land of the North, in her vast area and boundless resources. It is, indeed, a land to inspire the broadest and deepest patriotism; a land, as has been said, washed by three oceans, a land of mighty rivers and swelling inland seas, of vast, dense forests, and ocean-like prairies leading up to snow-capped mountains. Her inland lakes are in themselves greater in size than many of the kingdoms of Europe; England might be dropped into Lake Superior, and there would still be room for several of the smaller countries of Europe.

Sometimes when some Canadians feel with a degree of shame that the Dominion is not shouldering her fair share of the burdens of the Empire, that England is receiving no adequate return for the protection she affords Canada by her fleets, her diplomatic service, and above all, by her national prestige, there is a certain—well, negative comfort, in contemplating the history of Canadian boundary questions, and throwing into the balance, on Canada's account, the vast territories that have been lost to her, through the doubtless well-meant efforts of British diplomats to secure American friendship at Canada's expense.

If British statesmen could only have been brought to realise that territorial sacrifices never have, and never would, create a feeling of sincere friendship for Great Britain or for Canada in the hearts of the governing classes of the United States, they might have taken a very different course in the various boundary negotiations, and thousands of square miles of what is now American territory would have remained where they rightly belonged, within the territories of British North America.

From the very beginning Canadian territory was used to cajole the revolting colonists, full of the intoxication of a new-born freedom, into reconciliation with the mother country. The astute politicians of the United

States were quick to grasp the possibilities of the situation. They had no intention of accepting the olive branch held out by Great Britain, but they saw no reason why the evident anxiety of the mother country for cordial relations should not be turned to good account.

When the Treaty of 1783 was being negotiated, Benjamin Franklin, with amazing effrontery, coolly suggested that England should hand over her remaining North American colonies to the United States, to the end that the two nations might, as he suggested, thereby secure to themselves a lasting peace. While England did not see fit to accede to this remarkable proposition, her representatives showed every disposition to concede the alleged claims of the United States, however extravagant, however preposterous, to territory that by all the laws of nations justly belonged to Canada. The magnificent stretch of territory, now forming the States of Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan, with portions of Ohio and Minnesota, was handed over by Lord Shelburne to the United States. These lands unquestionably belonged to Canada. They had been originally discovered by French-Canadians, and were ceded to England, with the rest of Canada, after the conquest of Quebec. They were distinctly included in the boundaries of the Province of Quebec, as defined by the Proclamation of 1763. But what of that? The United States wanted them, and England did not.

So it was in every subsequent boundary negotiation. That great wedge of American territory that cuts New Brunswick almost in two was gained for the United States because the sharp wits of a Daniel Webster were pitted against the lordly indifference of an Ashburton. On the Pacific coast, England again surrendered Canadian territory to the Americans. The first men to reach the Pacific overland were Canadians, and the first men to establish trading posts at the mouth of the Columbia were again Canadians. Nevertheless, when the United States demanded a boundary far north of the Columbia,

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England once more revealed her untiring desire to purchase American friendship by means of Canadian territory. On the whole, it is not altogether surprising that Canada's boundaries are now a somewhat sore point to the people of the Dominion. Fortunately, recent events have brought to English statesmen not only a more just conception of the value of Canadian territory, but a warmer appreciation of the value of Canadian kinship, and it is hoped that this feeling will continue to grow from year to year, thereby providing a safeguard against any mistakes or misunderstandings, in the future, in respect to such questions.

In every direction the old misconceptions of the past are giving place to a clearer understanding, on the part of Englishmen, of the people, resources, climate, and general characteristics of Canada. It is no longer possible, as it was a few years ago, for a statesman in the Imperial House of Commons to tell his interested hearers that Canada is separated from the United States by the Straits of Panama. Neither do anxious mothers write to friends in Winnipeg to be kind enough to give an hour or two to meeting their sons upon their arrival at Quebec or Halifax; nor do those same sons so frequently after landing at the crowded docks of Montreal, armed with bowie-knife and express rifle, ask to be taken to the nearest resort of the wood buffalo.*

* The late Colonel Skinner, M.P., related to the writer that on the occasion of his going to Wimbledon, in the 'seventies, in command of a rifle-team from Ontario, many English visitors to their camp expressed surprise at finding that the Colonel and his men were not copper-coloured. The depth of ignorance, not only of the average Englishmen, but of men whose public position and world-wide experience make it inexcusable, as regards Canada was brought home to the people of the Dominion in a peculiarly discouraging fashion not long ago. The Commander-in-Chief of the British Army, Lord Roberts—a man as dear to the hearts of Canadians as to those of the Homeland—stated before the War Commission that —'he had been told that Canada was very much covered with dense forests, and that it was very difficult to find much spare ground!' The colossal, the stupendous ignorance of this answer

Happily, the British Press is giving an increasing amount of attention to Canadian affairs, and what is more important, is taking greater pains to ensure accurate information. Such visits as those of the Prince and Princess of Wales, the British Association, the British delegates to the Congress of Chambers of Commerce, and the British Press and the British Parliamentary excursion to Canada, are doing incalculable good in bringing Canada and the mother land to a better and more intelligent understanding.

The traveller from Europe, bound for Canada, approaches the country by one of several routes, according to the season of the year, and the particular line of steamers which he favours. He may be landed at Halifax or St. John, or he may be carried through the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and so up the river to Quebec or Montreal; and in the latter case he has still two alternatives. His steamer may enter the Gulf by way of the narrow Straits of Belle Isle, separating Newfoundland from Labrador, or it may take the other route past the treacherous rocks of Cape Race, and so on through the broad channel between Newfoundland and Cape Breton. By this route, unless he gets a glimpse of the outermost points of Cape Breton, his first sight of Canada will be of the rugged Gaspé coast, a district of the province of Quebec, which obtained its name, appropriately enough, from the corruption of an Indian word meaning 'end of the earth.' A wild country it is, with cliffs rising seven hundred feet sheer in an unbroken wall of miles of gray rock. Life centres in its out-of-the-world fishing villages, in the occasional signal stations, and the main road that follows the sea coast. Gorges, cascades, still lakes between the hills, mossy swamps where the pitcher plant

places it almost beyond belief, did it not appear in black and white in a British Blue Book. It is, perhaps, useless to mention, that a million Wimbledon or Bisley Commons might be laid out side by side on the level, treeless prairies of the Canadian North-West, and in any one of the provinces room could be found, and to spare, to manœuvre all the armies of England.

grows, make the face of the country between the fertile intervals where there is good farming land. Plenty of caribou and salmon and the diversified beauty of its scenery make Gaspé an ideal country for sportsman and artist, though its advantages to the settler may be somewhat problematical. The men of Gaspé—and, in fact, throughout the coasts of the Gulf—are primarily fishermen, and only incidentally farmers. The farms are left to the women, except when the wind is too high for fishing, or the fish have not 'struck in' along the coast. Cod fishing forms the staple industry, and herring, pickerel, gaspereau, and several other kinds of fish lend variety to the catch. Farther around, on the New Brunswick coast, the supremacy of the cod as an industrial factor is seriously questioned by the lobster fisheries and factories. The Prince Edward Island coast is famous for its Malpecque oysters; and Shediac, on the mainland, exports yearly many car-loads and ship-loads of clams to the fish markets of Boston and New York.

But to return to our ship. As she steams south-west up the noble river, between banks so far apart that the traveller can scarcely believe that he is not still in the outer Gulf, the country becomes less sparsely settled, farm-houses appear on either side, and occasional villages, each clustered about its parish church, for all the world like a family of chickens around the mother hen. Presently small towns appear, Rimouski, Tadousac (at the mouth of the Saguenay), Cacouna and Riviere-du-Loup (famous watering places), Kamouraska, Murray Bay on the north side of the river (another favourite summer resort), Montmagny, St. Michel, and, at last, Quebec. Every point on the river, both above and below Quebec, teams with historical interest, having been the scene of some fight with the Indians or some early Colonial tragedy, the site of a pioneer settlement, or the landing-place of one or other of the several New England expeditions that sought vainly to capture that mighty fortress which none but a Wolfe might win.

If the traveller should leave his steamer at Quebec, and continue his journey to Montreal by rail, as some do (notwithstanding the many allurements of the river route), he would be carried through the heart of French Canada, past scores of prosperous farms, where the old-time conservatism of the rural French-Canadian has at last broken down, and he no longer gathers in his harvests with the simple, antiquated tools that his father and grandfather used, but utilises to the full the results of modern inventiveness. In the latter half of the journey the country shows an increasing density of population. Towns of moderate size become more frequent, and evidences multiply of industrial activity; until at last Montreal is reached, and the traveller finds himself in the midst of that atmosphere of stress and strain and ceaseless turmoil that marks the life of a modern city.

From Montreal he may continue his journey west to Toronto, the largest city in the Dominion next to Montreal; or turn south to St. John, Halifax, and other points in the Maritime Provinces. A short trip of three hours will bring him to the federal capital, Ottawa.

French Canada has been described as two continuous villages along the banks of the St. Lawrence, where occasionally, as in old France, women of the peasant class work in the fields, sometimes bits of picturesque colour, sometimes work-worn, nearly always contented. Lovers of flowers, as all the French Canadians are, their poorest cottages show a wealth of bloom in the windows, and neat little summer plots in front. Stiff Normandy poplars, brought out in the early days, heighten the French character of the landscape; but the fine second growth of maple and other hard woods has too often been carelessly and inartistically cut away. Public-spirited Canadians have of late instituted a system of forestry protection which promises renewed beauty, as well as perpetual wealth, to the land, one of the most persistent and enthusiastic advocates of the preservation and renewal of the forests being the present Lieutenant-

Governor of British Columbia, Sir Henri Joly de Lotbinière.

The province of Quebec, with its 351,000 square miles of territory, and its population of over a million and a half, almost entirely confined to one race and one religion, wields a very important influence in the councils of the country. The neighbouring province of Ontario is, however, the premier province of the Dominion, in area, population, and wealth. It covers 260,000 square miles, considerably more than the United Kingdom and Ireland, and contains a population of about 2,200,000. Many sections of the province were originally settled by the United Empire Loyalists, who emigrated to Canada from the Thirteen Colonies after the Revolutionary War, rather than swear allegiance to the United States. These sturdy loyalists carved homes for themselves in the wilderness of Upper Canada and the Maritime Provinces, and their descendants now constitute the backbone of English-speaking Canada.

On the Detroit river, in Western Ontario, there is found a group of French-Canadian settlements, made up of the descendants of discharged French soldiers who had fought against England in the war closed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. This portion of the province received at different times settlers of many nationalities, several towns having descendants of refugee slaves from the United States, fugitives who reached Canada by what was known as the 'underground railway.' They were met by private benevolence and public organisation, which resulted, in 1848, in the appropriation for them of a tract of 18,000 acres of crown lands. Another colony, near this refugee settlement, was founded by the Reverend Josiah Henson, the original of Mrs. Stowe's 'Uncle Tom.' The oddly mixed population of this section of the province includes United Empire Loyalists, Germans, negroes, the descendants of French gentlemen, and peasants, many of whom retain the habits and customs of their fathers.

Following the chain of waterways to the westward, an historical link is found in the boundary river St. Mary, a wild and narrow channel opening into Lake Superior, where the Sieur St. Lusson took formal possession in 1671, in the name of Louis XIV., and where the two towns of Sault Ste Marie—one Canadian and the other American—now stand, one on either side of the river. Through the American and Canadian canals at Sault Ste Marie pass every season vessels whose aggregate tonnage far exceeds that of the Suez canal. Here also are situated the enormous Clergue industries, including power works, pulp and paper mills, smelting works, blast furnaces, rolling mills, railways, and iron mines—a stupendous undertaking, for a time in financial difficulties, through over-capitalisation and too rapid development, but which, from the unequalled natural resources of the district, must inevitably become in the long run one of the greatest and most remunerative of Canadian industries.

Here also one finds, as everywhere else in Canada, the same curious mixture of an eminently practical and matter-of-fact present with a romantic past. Local tradition tells of bloody frays and Indian atrocities in the early days, and a certain flavour of Indian life still clings to the spot. It was at Sault Ste Marie, in 1671, that Father Allouez planted the cross and took religious possession of the country in the French King's name; and to this day, in out-of-the-world parishes on the neighbouring islands, are to be found worthy successors of the intrepid French missionaries of Canada's early days.

The country between the Great Lakes and the Height of land has often been described by superficial observers as a worthless and rocky region, which must always prove an insurmountable barrier between Central Canada and the North-West. That it looks worthless when seen from a steamship or railway carriage cannot be denied. The rocks are very much in evidence. But behind them lie innumerable fertile pockets of land, of milder climate than that by the lake shore, watered by swift rivers and

charmingly picturesque lakes. In the rocks lies much of the wealth of this region, for there is reason to believe that it is the richest mineral district east of the Rocky Mountains. This part of the country, subdivided as New Ontario, comprises four heavily timbered districts, with an intricate water system, and contains a land area of 140 million acres, 22 million of which are partially settled. The value of the land, buildings, live stock, etc., of the settlers already established reaches a considerable figure, and the output of the farm is encouraging; wheat and other grains, dairy products, potatoes and heavy roots, corn, hay and tobacco giving a handsome and ever-increasing return.

The climate is free from extremes of heat or cold, the great spruce forests sheltering the land from the bitter northerly winds of midwinter.

Fire rangers here, as in other wooded districts of Canada, are appointed to keep constant watch over the forests, and over the explorers or tourists who pass through them—these not always being as careful in putting out camp fires as they might be. The law in regard to building camp or other fires is strict, and is enforced as thoroughly as the limited number of rangers and the enormous extent of the territory they patrol will permit. Forest fires on a large scale—not so numerous now as formerly—often become a serious menace to adjoining settlements, as well as entailing the loss of much valuable timber, and every effort is made to keep them in check.

Voltaire thought France well rid of her colony of snow. It was well for his peace of mind that he could not foresee the extension of those supposed arpents of snow into miles of agricultural and mineral wealth, stretching from sea to sea. Since Voltaire's day Canada has made mighty strides in all that goes to make for the industrial, social, and intellectual welfare of a nation. Eastern Canada leads in population and wealth, but in the Dominion, as elsewhere, the tendency is always westward, and the future centre of wealth and influence is more

likely to be Winnipeg than Montreal or Toronto. Winnipeg, which this year handled more wheat than any other city in the world, not even excepting her great rivals Chicago and Duluth, is developing with the rapidity of a Western American town, and at the same time with that stability and caution which are characteristically Canadian.

And still farther to the west lies that province of boundless mineral wealth, British Columbia. Since the days when Sir Alexander Mackenzie crossed the Rockies for the first time, and stood upon the shores of the Pacific, a mighty change has been effected in the fortunes of this far distant portion of the Dominion, dating, chiefly, from the entrance of the colony into the Confederation in 1871, and the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway in 1885. British Columbia is Canada's western outlet to Asia and Australasia, and, when the second transcontinental railroad is completed, and a great ocean port created at Port Simpson, British Columbia will become an extremely important factor in the commerce of the world.

CHAPTER II

THE FRENCH-CANADIAN

No point in Canadian history has been the subject of more misconception than the origin of the French-Canadians. There is a widespread impression, founded on erroneous statements attributed to La Hontan, an early Canadian writer, and industriously repeated by succeeding historians, that many of the emigrants sent out to Canada by the French Government were of questionable character, criminals, discharged prisoners, and the like. Another mistaken idea is that a strong infusion of military blood was introduced into the population of French Canada, by the disbanding of French regiments in the colony. The veteran French-Canadian historian, Benjamin Sulte, than whom no living man is better qualified to speak authoritatively on such points as these, has finally demolished both these ancient fictions.

In a pithy article, in the first volume of 'Canada: An Encyclopædia of the Country,' Mr. Sulte shows conclusively that the predominating element in the population of Quebec is Norman. Dieppe and Rouen furnished the earliest settlers, the backbone of the colony, and continued to send men and women to New France up to 1673, when all emigration from Old to New France was stopped by the King. Other settlers had come, in small detachments, previous to that year, from Perche, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, Guienne, and Gascony, but they were in every case absorbed by the ruling type, that of Normandy. The same thing might be said

of a considerable portion of the Scotch, English, and Irish elements, which have in many cases been absorbed by the original stock and become part of the French Canadian race. A curious case in point may be seen to-day by any traveller who visits the Canadian villages on the Lower St. Lawrence. He will find scores of men, bearing good old Scottish names, Mac-This and Mac-That, who cannot speak a word of any language but French.* Mr. Sulte's conclusion is that the French-Canadian type (with the exception of the Acadian element in the Maritime Provinces) is Norman, whether its origin were pure Norman, mixed Norman, Gascon, or French-English.

On the subject of that uniformity of language which is so remarkable among the French-Canadians, Mr. Sulte observes that it is the best language spoken from Rochelle to Paris and Tours, and from there to Rouen, or the north and west of France. The south and east had no connexion with Canada at any time. Writers of the seventeenth century expressed the opinion that French-Canadians could understand a dramatic play as well as the *élite* of Paris, and the archives of Canada furnish ample proof of this, for we know that theatricals were common occurrences in New France, and that *The Cid* of Corneille was played in Quebec in 1645, *The Tartuffe* of Molière at a later date, and the same taste and appreciation for good dramatic and other literature has continued down to the present day. The taste for music and the love of songs are charcteristic of the French-Canadian temperament, and the racial facility for learning foreign languages is a well-recognised accomplishment.

* In prosecuting a census for the Presbyterian Church in Montreal, in November 1904, the Rev. Dr. Campbell found scores of French families there with names fairly redolent of heather, who spoke scarcely a word of English. 'It is somewhat startling,' said the reverend gentleman in question, 'to walk confidently up to the home of a Hugh Ross or a Donald McLellan, and find your first question met with an expressive shoulder-shrug, and an "*Excuse! parlez-vous Français?*"'

Quebec has produced a literature which in many respects is much more racy of the soil than is that of the English-speaking provinces; but this will be dealt with in another chapter. M. Rameau, a distinguished French *littérateur*, paid a deserved tribute to the purity of the French language as used in Quebec. He noted the curious fact that many words and phrases which are rarely now heard in France still exist among the peasantry of French-Canada, just as we find in New England many expressions which, though branded as Americanisms, are in reality pure English, brought over to America by the first colonists.

Another result of the peculiar historical and geographical position of the French-Canadian is that, separated by a wide ocean from the land of his mother tongue, and practically surrounded by an English-speaking community, he has to a considerable extent borrowed English words to describe things which are the product of modern life, and connected with his own immediate surroundings. For instance, the French-Canadian usually speaks of a 'railroad' or a 'steamboat' instead of using the corresponding French words, putting, however, a stress upon the last syllable. A still more singular development is the Gallicising of English verbs. An American, who has spent many years among the French-Canadians, says that he has heard one of them use the surprising French verb '*shunter*' (English to shunt a train or car). Another French-Canadian remarked that a certain person was '*malaisé à beater*' (hard to beat). His attention being called to some holes in the board he was using, he said '*Je vais les plugger*' ('I am going to plug them up'), although the common French *battre* or *boucher* would have served equally well. The *habitants* never speak of *pomme de terre;* they are invariably called 'patates.' At the lumber camps, where many French-Canadians are employed, pork and beans form one of the staple dishes. The vegetable retains its proper French name, *fèves*, but the cooked dish is called 'beans.'

Thus, the cook will ask if he is to '*mettre tremper des fèves pour faire des beans*,' that is, put some beans in soak to make some *beans*.* The *habitant* has a strong tendency, when removing to an English-speaking neighbourhood—Ontario, New England, etc.—to Anglicise his name. Roy, for instance, becomes King; Le Blanc turns to White; Boulanger to Baker, etc. Dr. Drummond gives an amusing instance of this in one of his inimitable *habitant* poems, where a French-Canadian, returning to his old Quebec home from the United States, announces to his friends: 'Ma name's Bateese Trudeau no more, but John B. Waterhole!' It may perhaps be necessary to explain that 'Bateese' stands for the most popular baptismal name in Quebec, that of the patron Saint of the Province, St. Jean Baptiste.

A good deal was said about the dual language in Canada, in connexion with discussions as to a similar problem in South Africa. As a matter of fact, the records and statutes of the Dominion are always given in the two languages, and motions are invariably put by the Speakers of both Houses of Parliament at Ottawa in French as well as in English. The debates appear daily in both languages, and the French-Canadian members frequently exercise their privilege of addressing the House in their native tongue. As most of them, however, use English with fluency, and comparatively few English-Canadians understand French, there is little, beyond the desire to keep the privilege alive, to induce the Quebec representatives to deliver French speeches. In the local Legislature at Quebec the tables are turned. There, as at Ottawa, the dual language is provided for by law, but one rarely hears anything but French. In

* Thus it appears that the French spoken in Quebec is remarkably pure, so far as it embodies the language brought over from France by the early colonists; but to express the ideas growing out of numerous peculiarly modern developments, the French-Canadian has to a considerable extent adopted English words, which he sometimes uses in their original form, and sometimes turns into doubtful French.

the Supreme Court of Canada the arguments may be, although they seldom are, in French, and the two Quebec judges who sit on the Supreme Court bench frequently give their decisions in that language.

Parkman, in his 'Old Régime in Canada,' drew with his customary skill a picture of the French-Canadian of the early days—the product of a paternal Government perpetually regulating, interfering with, restricting, or neglecting, the unfortunate colony. Volition, he said, was enfeebled, self-reliance paralysed. The colonist of French-Canada was in the condition of a child 'held always under the rule of a father, in the main well-meaning and kind, sometimes generous, sometimes neglectful, often capricious, and rarely very wise.' Parkman draws a rather unflattering comparison between the French-Canadian and the sturdy, self-reliant colonist of New England; but the comparison is not always just to the former. The history of the French-Canadian, both under the French *régime* and as subject of the British Crown, shows him to have possessed, in no small degree, the qualities of self-government. He had little chance to prove himself until after the conquest, but since the establishment of responsible government, he has shown himself perfectly capable of 'paddling his own canoe.'

The French-Canadian is still French; he has many things in common with his European cousin; but in some vital respects he is radically different. His New World environment, with its solitude, its vastness, its inherent simplicity, the lurking dangers of its forests, its constant demands upon his energy and power of instant decision, could not fail to develop in him powers of self-reliance and individuality beyond those possessed by the Old World Frenchman. Parkman gives most of the credit for the notable achievements of the colony to Old World Frenchmen, but a closer study of early Canadian history reveals the fact that the men who led successful expeditions against the New Englanders, who defeated the Iroquois on his own ground and by his own methods

of warfare, and who explored with indomitable courage and energy the far Western wilderness, were for the most part not Frenchmen, but French-Canadians—men who had been born, or spent most of their lives, in the colony.*

The advance of civilisation in more recent times has to some extent carried the French-Canadian back to the characteristics of the original stock, but, in spite of much that has been written to the contrary, there are at the present time few points of sympathy between the European Frenchman and the French of the New World. In those admirable qualities which have made France the home of politeness and good manners, however, the French-Canadian has fully retained the characteristics of his race. He is also steady in his habits, temperate, and conservative in his instincts. Statistics show that the province of Quebec is the most temperate in the Dominion. The fact that when a prohibition *plébiscite* was taken of Canada, a few years ago, the French-Canadians almost to a man voted against it, might seem on the surface to lead to a different conclusion, but the adverse vote of Quebec in that instance was due, not to any leaning toward intemperance, but rather as a protest against what the people considered an interference with their legitimate rights and liberty.

The French-Canadian, like his European cousin, is a hero-worshipper. He often votes for the man rather than the party. He is swayed to a large extent by rhetoric, but in the main his political judgment is not much at fault.†

The *habitant*, or farmer of Quebec, is not what he was

* *Vide* 'Lake St. Louis,' and 'Supplement,' by Judge Girouard, pp. 86, 322.

† Papineau, Lafontaine, and Cartier were, in their day, the popular idols of Quebec, but neither these nor any other ever held so unique a place in the hearts of French-Canadians as the present Premier of the Dominion, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who has carried his province at two successive general elections by overwhelming majorities.

a decade or two ago. During the last few years the province of Quebec has undergone a remarkable industrial transformation, and the people, both of town and country, are approximating more closely, in all that makes for comfort and convenience, to the well-to-do farmers of Ontario and New England. The old-fashioned plough, which was good enough for his father and grandfather, is not good enough for the *habitant* of to-day. In this, as in every other appliance designed to lighten human labour, and facilitate the transfer of wheat in the ear to wheat in the barn, he is now satisfied with nothing less than the best, the most 'up-to-date.' He imports improved stock, horses, cattle, etc.; supports cheese and butter factories; and has, in fact, wrought such a marvellous transformation in what was once considered a comparatively unproductive or exhausted province, that insurance companies are now able to testify that the farms and farmers of Quebec are among the best risks they can get in the country.

Much of this radical change in agricultural methods has been due to the enlightened policy pursued by the Government of Quebec, ably seconded by the efforts of agricultural societies, and such far-seeing citizens as the late Reverend Mr. Montmigny, of Beauce, the Hon. Louis Beaubien, of Montreal, and others who, by persuading the farmers to adopt new methods and implements, turned what had come to be regarded as barren districts into the richest and most fruitful counties in the province, and, as a result, brought back scores of French-Canadians from the United States, where they had wandered because they could not make a living off the old home farms, with the only methods they knew of.

Inevitably, the increased prosperity of the farmer of Quebec has brought with it increasing comfort in his home. The *habitant* never lacked plenty of good plain food and a warm hearth, where every one was welcome, but when money became more plentiful, and the mortgage had been paid off, he very naturally turned his

attention, with the able assistance of the good wife, to the acquisition of those modern luxuries which he found in the homes of his English-speaking friends. The well-scrubbed floor of the parlour must now be covered by a modern carpet, and the fiddle of an earlier generation must give place to a piano. Similarly, the *cariole* and *calêche*, once the almost universal means of conveyance for winter and summer respectively, have now given place to cutters and carriages of the most modern description.

Some of us may venture to regret this rapid transformation on purely selfish grounds of æsthetic pleasure. Quebec was, a few years ago, one of the few remaining spots where one could find something picturesque in life and customs, something removed from the hopeless monotony that more and more characterises modern life. But, after all, the people of Quebec must be the best judges of what is best for themselves. If they draw new happiness from the added comforts and conveniences of their modern homes, as inevitably they must, the most ardent lover of the picturesque could not wish things otherwise.

With the old life and the old conditions so rapidly passing away, an added interest is lent to what we must now seek only in the narratives of older writers. One of the Canadian historians (Charles Roberts) gives the following graphic picture of the social life of the French-Canadian under the old *régime*:—

'During the early days of the colony the *habitants* had lived chiefly on bread and eels. Throughout the early part of the eighteenth century they lived on salt meat, milk, and bread for the greater part of the year. But in winter fresh meat was abundant. Travelling was pleasant, and from Christmas to Ash Wednesday there was a ceaseless round of visits. Half a dozen sleighs would drive up to a *habitant's* cottage. A dozen of his friends would jump out, stable their horses, and flock chattering into the warm kitchen. The house-wife at this season was always prepared for guests. She had meats of various

kinds roasted and put away cold. All she had to do was to thrust them into the hot oven, and in a few minutes the dinner was ready. At such times bread was despised by everybody, and sweet cakes took its place. When the *habitants*, as on May-Day, were feasted by their seigneur, the table was loaded with a profusion of delicacies. Legs of veal and mutton, roasts and cutlets of fresh pork, huge bowls of savoury stews, pies of many kinds shaped like a half-moon, large tarts of jam, with doughnuts fried in lard and rolled in maple sugar, were among the favoured dishes. (These doughnuts, or *croquignoles*, are still a favourite cake in Quebec, and belong especially to the Christmas season.) The *habitant* cared little for the seigneur's wines, because they did not, to use his own expression, "scratch the throat enough." Among the upper classes breakfast was a light meal, with white wine and coffee, usually taken at eight o'clock. Dinner was at midday, and supper at seven. Soup was always served at both these meals. On the great sideboard, filled with silver and china, which usually occupied one end of the dining-room and reached to the ceiling, stood cordials to encourage the appetite. In one corner stood a water-jar of blue-and-white porcelain, at which guests might rinse their hands before going to table. The table was served with a great abundance of choice fish and game. Each person's place was supplied with napkin, plate, silver goblet, spoon, and fork; but every one carried and used his own knife. Some of these closed with a spring, and were carried in the pocket. Others were worn in a sheath of morocco, of silk, or of birch-bark quaintly wrought with Indian designs in beads and porcupine quills. This sheath was generally worn hanging from the neck by an ornamental cord. The *habitants* often used a clasp-knife with no spring, which had to be kept open when in use by means of the thumb. To use such a knife was a feat requiring some practice.

'Among the dishes specially favoured by the upper classes was one of great size and richness, and of very

elaborate construction, called the Easter pasty. This pasty was eaten cold. Lest it should break in the cooking, and so lose its flavour, the lower crust was an inch in thickness. The contents were nothing less than a turkey, two chickens, partridges, pigeons, and the thighs of rabbits, larded with slices of pork, embedded in balls of force-meat and onions, and seasoned with almost all the spices of the pantry. With such a dish to set before them it is no wonder that the Canadians of old enjoyed their banquets. To keep up the cheer of hearts that aids digestion, all the company sang in turn about the table, the ladies bearing their full share with the men. It was a happy and innocent life which sped in the manor-houses of the St. Lawrence, where the influence of Bigot (the notorious *Intendant* of New France) and his crew was not allowed to reach. Though many of the seigneurs were ruined at the conquest, and many others left the country, those who remained kept up their ancient customs long after the flag of France had ceased to wave above Quebec; and some of these venerated usages survive in the province to this day.'

The French-Canadian is essentially light-hearted. His gaiety is perhaps not quite as exuberant as that of the Parisian, but he enjoys life to the full, and tries to make every one around him do likewise. He is kindhearted (it is an unheard-of thing for a beggar to be turned away empty) and most hospitable. The best that he has is none too good for either friend or stranger who shares his board. Discourtesy and rudeness, whether in the city, the country, or even the far-off lumber camps, are practically unknown in Quebec. They are utterly foreign to the nature of the French-Canadian.

The women of Quebec are attractive and vivacious. Kalm, the Swedish traveller, who spent some time in Canada, about the middle of the eighteenth century, found the women of Montreal handsome, well-bred and virtuous, with an innocent and becoming freedom. 'They dress,' he adds, 'very fine on Sundays, and though

on the other days they do not take much pains with the other parts of their dress, yet they are very fond of adorning their heads, the hair of which is always curled and powdered, and ornamented with glittering bodkins and aigrettes. They are not averse to taking part in all the business of housekeeping.' The latter qualification seems to have specially appealed to the frugal mind of the old Swedish philosopher. French-Canadian women, whether on the farm or elsewhere, are known to be exquisite cooks.

The tendency in Quebec is to marry early; and those statesmen and statisticians who from time to time bemoan the increasing tendency of most of the highly-civilised nations to evade the Scriptural injunction to bring up children, would find much to delight their hearts in the families of Quebec. Large families are the rule rather than the exception. Fifteen is quite a usual family; and the writer has a vivid recollection of a photograph which a friend had taken, a year or two ago, of a *habitant* family—father and mother and twenty-five children, running down in pretty regular steps, from the eldest son, aged somewhere about thirty, to the latest arrival, not yet graduated from the cradle. There were, if I remember rightly, two pairs of twins in the happy family.

The French-Canadian is fond of both music and dancing, and throughout the long winter evenings, old-fashioned cotillions or *danses rondes* are popular. Waltzing and other round dances are, however, frowned on by the Church. The numerous feast-days of the Church are kept with genuine enthusiasm, and are made the occasion of much innocent amusement, after the religious duties of the day have been attended to.

What appeals more than anything else to the tastes and imagination of the *habitant* is, however, the tales of the *conteur*. These story-tellers are found everywhere in Quebec, and whether in the farm-houses, around the smithy fire, or in the lumber camps, they are always certain of a warm welcome. When a good *conteur* turns

up, he is given the choicest corner by the fireplace, or the softest log around the camp-fire. The tales are of various kinds. Some are stock tales, like 'Tiens-bon-là' and 'L'histoire de mon petit défunt frère Louizon,' which have been told by generations of French-Canadian *conteurs*, and the roots of which run back to the common stock of folk-tales. They are mostly fairy stories, in which there is almost always a 'jeune prince' and a 'jeune princesse.' A good *conteur* will keep his audience spellbound for two hours without a pause, and there are some stories that occupy two evenings in the telling.

Beside the more ambitious *contes*, the story-teller, who is usually a hunter or lumberman, has an endless fund of anecdotes, in which the imagination is given free play. Fiction is inextricably mixed with fact, and exaggeration of the most pronounced type rules over all. One of the oddest qualities of these *conteurs* is a certain *esprit-de-corps*, which makes it impossible for one story-teller to discredit the tales of another, however incredible. It is said of one Dalbec, who was a great hunter as well as a famous *conteur*, that he and an equally celebrated rival would draw a crowd of people about them on Sundays after vespers, and tell their wonderful yarns with perfect sobriety, neither questioning a word that the other might say, but occasionally putting in a word of assent, such as *C'était bien fait* ('That was well done'), or *C'est bien vrai* ('That is quite true'), and then going on himself to tell something still more surprising.

This same Dalbec has become a sort of Canadian Munchausen. His exploits have been told over and over again by the *conteurs*, and have lost nothing in the telling, especially in such capable hands.

Mr. Greenough, in a delightful little volume on 'Canadian Folk-Life and Folk-Lore,' has gathered several of these Dalbec stories which he himself had direct from a well-known *conteur* called Nazaire, and translated from the vernacular.

'There was once,' said Nazaire, 'a very famous

hunter named Dalbec, who lived in the village of Ste Anne. He had been hunting all day and was returning home when he came to a little round lake, on the opposite side of which he saw a fox. Just as he raised his gun to fire, six ducks came sailing from under the bushes nearer to him. He hesitated at which to shoot, and decided to try his chances at both. Placing the barrel of his long gun between two trees, he bent it into a quarter of a circle, fired at the ducks, killed them all, killed the fox also, and the bullet came back and broke the leg of his dog that was standing by him.'

Dalbec on another occasion had been ploughing, and at night, just as he was about to put his horses in the barn, he heard a flock of wild geese in the air over his head. 'He went into the house and got his gun, but it was so dark he could see nothing. Still hearing the noise he fired in the direction from which it came. As no birds fell he concluded that he had missed them, so he went into the house, ate his supper and went to bed. In the morning he was going for his horse again when just as he was stepping out of door a goose fell at his feet. It was one of those he had shot at, and it had been so high up it had been all night in falling.'

And so the tales go on, each more fabulous than the last.

Quebec is full, too, of legends, some of which have grown out of the life of the country, but most are as old as the hills.*

Dr. Louis Fréchette gives an interesting account of one of these *chasse-galerie* stories in his 'Christmas in French-Canada.' The origin of the *chasse-galerie* legend, says Dr. Fréchette, can be traced to the Middle Ages. In France and Germany they had what was called the Black Huntsman. It was a fantastic coursing which

* M. Honoré Beaugrand, who was for many years well known to Quebec journalism, has collected a number of these characteristic legends and stories of Quebec, of the *chasse-galerie*, etc., in several handsome volumes.

rode in the air, with wild clamour and desperate speed, through the darkness of the night. In French-Canada, by a curious phenomenon of mirage observed in some circumstances, a mounted canoe was seen flying through the air, and this was naturally substituted for the Black Huntsman, who went also, in some provinces of France, by the name of '*Chasse-galerie*.' It was supposed that the French-Canadian lumbermen—who, by the way, did not always enjoy a very enviable reputation—managed through some devilish process to travel in this way to save fatigue and shorten the distance. 'Fiddle Joe,' a well-known *conteur*, insisted that he had seen the *chasse-galerie*, which he described thus :—

'It was something like a canoe, which travelled, rapidly as an arrow, at about five hundred feet above the earth, manned by a dozen reprobates in red shirts, paddling like damnation, with Satan standing in the stern. We could even hear them sing in chorus, with all sorts of devilish voices : "V'là l'bon vent ! v'là l'joli vent !"'

The *loup-garou* is another favourite legend of French-Canada : the *Wehrwolf* of Germany, adapted to Canadian circumstances. In French-Canada a moral has been added; the *loup-garou* here is not a sorcerer, but a victim of irreligion. A man who has been seven years without partaking of the Easter Sacrament falls a prey to the infernal power, and may be condemned to rove about every night in the shape and skin of a wolf, or any other kind of animal, according to the nature of his sins. A bloody wound only can release him.

The village life of the *habitant* is by all odds the most characteristic and picturesque in America. Going by steamer between Quebec and Montreal, one passes scores of French-Canadian villages, perched on the summit of some point of land jutting out into the river, or half hidden among the trees. The cottages are generally built of wood, whitewashed outside and in. Sometimes they are built of stone. Brick is rarely used for building purposes in the country districts of Quebec. Chairs and

tables are often of home manufacture, especially in the remote districts. Sometimes the roofs of barns are thatched, at least in the district around the City of Quebec, a thing never seen in the English provinces. Tile roofs are unknown. Tin is sometimes used, but shingles generally prevail. One may wander through many of these Canadian villages, and find no one who speaks anything but French, unless it be perchance the Curé of the parish. The Curé is the most important personage in the village, and after him comes the notary; then the storekeeper and the physician. In the most prominent situation stands the church, often quite an imposing structure; and beside it is the *presbytère* of the Curé, a building of almost equally striking proportions. Somewhere on the one long street will be found a modest inn, and not far off a general store or shop, where the simple needs of the parishioners are amply satisfied. Homespun clothing is still worn in out-of-the-way villages, but anywhere near the larger towns it has been superseded by ready-made or tailor-made clothing. The French-Canadian of the lower classes is fond of bright coloured clothing, in which he is markedly different from his English-speaking compatriot, who shares the universal Anglo-Saxon distaste for anything conspicuous in men's dress. The *habitant* wears bright colours all the year round, but particularly in winter; his *étoffe du pays* or homespun suit, bright sash, and fur cap, form one of the few remaining picturesque features in a rapidly changing scene. The animated scene presented by a French-Canadian village in winter is vastly different from that seen in rural Ontario, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, etc. The prevailing colour in the English-speaking communities is a dull, leaden grey. In Quebec, one finds a brightness and variety of colouring which is in keeping with the light-hearted temperament of the people. The Ontario farmer takes life very seriously. He works hard all day, reads his paper in the evening, and goes to bed early. The farmer of Quebec is a very different being. He

does not permit his daily task to sap all the brightness out of his life. His evenings are given up to smoking, gossip, dancing, games, or story-telling, according to his age and temperament. He goes to bed about nine o'clock and rises at five. He reads his weekly newspaper generally on Sunday after Mass. In fact he generally gets his mail on Sunday.

To English and American visitors the picturesque and romantic side of Quebec life is so prominent that it is hardly realised how very important a place, industrially, the French-speaking province holds in the Dominion. Montreal is, of course, the commercial and industrial metropolis of the province—as it is of the Dominion—and in Montreal you will find great French firms wielding an influence in the commercial world fully equal to that of their English-speaking compatriots. Here, also, as in most commercial communities of comparatively long standing, has grown up what may be called an aristocracy of trade. Families like the Forgets—one of whom is a Senator of the Dominion, and another the local 'King of Wall Street'—are known not merely throughout Canada, but throughout the commercial world.

To fair-minded Canadians of every speech and political faith, the loyalty of the French-Canadian is accepted as a matter of course. There are, of course, in Canada, as there are abroad, individuals who from ignorance or interested motives have called this loyalty in question, and even for a time succeeded in stirring up bitterness of feeling between the French province and the English provinces of the Dominion, but the better class of Canadians have never given weight to these idle tales.* The French-Canadian, it is true, is not boisterous in his loyalty. He is not a Jingo. He is not even an Imperialist.

* On the occasion of Queen Victoria's death, some of the most eloquent tributes paid to her memory came from French-Canadians. The writer recalls, particularly, the utterances at that sad time of Archbishop Bruchesi of Montreal, of Chief Justice Sir Alexandre Lacoste, and of Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

He has a profound distrust of anything that seems to him to tend toward militarism. But he is none the less a true and loyal subject of his King and country. Professor Goldwin Smith admirably summed up the matter recently in these words :—'The French-Canadians have never since they were allowed the rights for which, simultaneously with British-Canadians, they contended against an arbitrary government, given occasion for political umbrage. They have always heartily acquiesced in British institutions, obeyed British laws, and been faithful to the British government. To expect that they should renounce their national character, their feeling for their mother country, their language, their ancestral religion, or their popular flag, would be absurd.'

CHAPTER III

POLITICAL AND JUDICIAL SYSTEMS

One may search in vain through the history of civilised nations for another case revealing such variety of political and constitutional experience as has been found in Canada, from the days of Champlain to the confederation of the provinces of British North America. The gamut has run from absolutely autocratic rule to a system which is in the fullest sense a government by and for the people.

During the years of the French *régime* there can hardly be said to have been any real political development. The system was an offshoot of the autocratic monarchy of the French kings. Neither representative nor party government existed in New France. The Governor was at first invested with absolute rule, which, latterly, he was compelled to share with an Intendant, who was given control of the financial affairs of the colony, and acted as a check on the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. A Supreme Council was also created, in which the Church and the great trading companies were represented. It was a system under which the personality of the individual was everything. If the Governor was a strong man, he held the supreme control; if the Intendant was the more forceful character, he became the practical ruler of the colony. Sometimes the government resolved itself into a doubtful compromise, in which the interests of the Governor, the Intendant, and the Supreme Council were combined. In no case had the actual colonist a voice in the administration of the colony.

INTERIOR OF THE LIBRARY OF PARLIAMENT, OTTAWA.

At the same time it need not be hastily assumed that the administration of New France was entirely inimical to the interests of the colonist. The colony had good Governors and bad Governors, good Intendants and bad Intendants. Some had at heart the best interests of the settlements on the banks of the St. Lawrence; others thought only of enriching themselves and their friends, at the expense of the colony. Nor must we suppose that the people of New France were a down-trodden race, struggling against an unwelcome yoke. Neither the age nor the traditions of the colonists were favourable to such a measure of self-government as was conceded to the provinces some time after the taking of Quebec.

With the surrender of Quebec and Montreal to England, in 1759–1760, Canada took her first step in the direction of political liberty, but the step was only a very tentative one, and the colony had still to pass through a number of intermediate stages before the full measure of self-government was accomplished. For the first decade after the conquest, the government was carried on by a Governor-General, aided by an advisory Council, composed for the most part of Englishmen, with a few French Huguenots and Swiss. The French-Canadians were by no means contented with the new administration; but their legitimate grievances were removed by the Quebec Act of 1774, which gave the first constitution to the province. There was still no representative feature in the government, but the French-Canadians were given many of the privileges they asked; some of their leading men were given seats in the Executive and Legislative Councils appointed by the King, and they were confirmed in their civil and religious liberties, even in the matter of tithes and the seigneurial tenure. The criminal law of England was to prevail throughout the colony, but the French-Canadians were allowed to retain, and they still retain, their own civil law—the *Coutume de Paris*. This body of French law remains substantially as it was then, subject to such modifications as have been found necessary from time to

time to bring it into harmony with the requirements of a new country and the conditions of modern life. It has been consolidated in a code based on that of Napoleon, and the rules of procedure have also been codified.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century, the immigration of some forty thousand United Empire Loyalists from the revolted thirteen colonies into Upper Canada and the Maritime Provinces brought the country to another step on the political ladder. By the Constitutional Act of 1791, the people were for the first time given direct representation. The Act provided for a Governor-General for Canada and a Lieutenant-Governor for that portion of it known as Upper Canada, both appointed by the Sovereign. In each province there was an executive or advisory body, chosen by the Governor; a legislative council, also chosen by the Governor; and an assembly elected by the people in certain districts on a restricted franchise. One cardinal principle of representative government remained, however, to be granted. The advisory or executive council was still appointed by the Crown, instead of being responsible to the elected assembly, and through them to the people at large.

Following the mission of Lord Durham and his famous Report, Canada entered upon still another period of constitutional development. By the Act of 1840, the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united under one government, and several other important changes were accomplished; but the vital consequence of the Act was the final concession of the principle of the responsibility of the Cabinet to Parliament. The Canadian legislature was also given full control of taxation, supply, and expenditure, in accordance with British constitutional principles. Meanwhile, the Maritime Provinces had already attained to a similar measure of self-government. The Act of 1840 was the last important step in the political evolution of Canada, until in 1867 the scattered colonies of British North America were confederated in the Dominion of Canada, with an

elaborate constitution, which has been described as a mixture of British principles and practice with American political methods and party ideals; a system unique in history—a federal monarchy in form, a crowned republic in fact.*

The political history of the country has been divided, by a Canadian historian, into five fairly distinct periods:—

1. The period of French rule, from 1608 to 1760, or the period of absolute government.

2. The period of a Crown Colony from 1760 to 1791, when representative and legislative institutions were established.

3. The period from 1791 to 1840, when representative institutions were slowly developing into responsible or complete self-government.

4. The period from 1840 to 1867, during which responsible government was enjoyed in the fullest sense of the phrase, and the federal union was finally accomplished as the natural result of the extended liberties of the people.

5. The period of confederation—the existing period—in which the political system has been brought to a high degree of perfection, one admirably adapted to the

* These are the men who, meeting at Quebec in 1864, as delegates from their respective colonies, paved the way to Confederation and to the Canadian Magna Charta, the B. N. A. Act. They are commonly called 'The Fathers of Confederation':—Sir Etienne P. Taché, Sir John A. Macdonald, Sir George E. Cartier, Hon. W. McDougall, C.B., Hon. George Brown, Sir A. T. Galt, Sir Alexander Campbell, Sir Oliver Mowat, Sir H. L. Langevin, Hon. Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Hon. James Cockburn, Hon. J. C. Chapais, Sir Charles Tupper, Hon. W. A. Henry, Hon. Jonathan McCully, Sir A. G. Archibald, Hon. R. B. Dickey, Sir S. L. Tilley, Hon. J. M. Johnson, Hon. Peter Mitchell, Hon. Charles Fisher, Hon. E. B. Chandler, Hon. W. H. Steeves, Hon. J. H. Gray (P.E.I.), Hon. J. H. Grey (N.B.), Hon. E. Palmer, Hon. W. H. Pope, Hon. George Coles, Hon. T. H. Haviland, Hon. Edward Whalen, Hon. A. A. McDonald, Sir F. B. T. Carter, and Sir A. Shea. Sir W. P. Howland and the Hon. J. W. Ritchie, who attended the London Conference in 1866–67, which completed the terms of union, are also called 'Fathers of Confederation.'

circumstances of the country, and which on its own merits will bear comparison with the system of any other country. It provides a broader franchise than that of England, and is more truly representative of the will of the people than the political system of the United States.

By a special Act, passed in 1854, the seigneurial tenure of Lower Canada was abolished. This feudal system, under which grants of land were made in New France to various seigneurs, who in turn leased it to censitaires under various restrictions, was established by Cardinal Richelieu, with a lack of foresight which one hardly expected to find in that great statesman. The conditions were so obviously different in New France from those which prevailed in the old land, that the system was doomed to failure from the start. As a matter of fact, the seigneurs, or many of them, made little or no effort to carry out the intention of Richelieu, which was that they should clear the land and take out settlers at their own expense.*

Colonel Joseph Bouchette, once Surveyor-General of Canada, gave an admirable description of the operation of the feudal tenure in Canada :—'By the ancient custom of Canada,' he says, 'lands were held immediately from the king *en fief* or *en roture*, on condition of rendering fealty and homage on accession to the seigneurial property, and in the event of a transfer thereof by sale or otherwise, except in hereditary succession, it was subject to the payment of a *quint*, or the fifth of the whole purchase-money, and which if paid by the purchaser immediately entitled him to the *rebat*, or a reduction of two-thirds of the *quint*. The tenanciers, or holders of land *en roture*, are subject to some particular conditions, but they are not at all burdensome. For instance, they pay a small annual rent, usually between 2*s*. 6*d*. and 5*s*., and to this is added some article of provision, such as a couple of fowls, a goose, or a bushel of wheat, or something else of domestic

* Interesting data on this subject will be found in Judge Girouard's book, already referred to.

THE RIGHT HON. SIR WILFRID LAURIER, G.C.M.G.

consumption, and they are also bound to grind their corn at the "*moulin banal*," or the seigneur's mill, where one-fourteenth part of it is taken for his use as *moulure* (or toll for grinding), to repair the highways and byroads through their lands, and to make new ones, which when opened must be surveyed and approved by the *grand voyer* of the district, and established by *procès verbal*. The seigneurs by the old laws were entitled to constitute courts and preside as judges therein, in what was denominated *haute, moyenne, et basse justice*, which takes cognisance of all crimes committed within their jurisdiction except murder and treason. This privilege, however, has lain dormant since the conquest.'

The seigneur also had a right to a twelfth part of the purchase-money of every estate within his seigneury that changed hands, called *lots et ventes*. He possessed the right of pre-emption at the highest bidden price within forty days after the sale. He received tithes of all fish caught within his domain, and possessed various other privileges.

In 1853 a Royal Commission was appointed to prepare a plan for the commutation of the rights of the seigneurs. As a result of its recommendations, feudal tenure in Canada came to an end, the tenant being allowed to commute his rental on reasonable terms and become actual proprietor, in fee simple, of his holdings.

Very few of the seigneuries now remain in the families of the original grantees. One that has done so—the Barony of Longueüil—is of somewhat special interest. This seigneury was first granted in 1657 to Charles Le Moyne, senior, and in 1700 was made a feudal barony by Louis XIV., in favour of Charles Le Moyne, son of the original grantee, who became the first baron. A remarkable provision of the patent, and one which led in the next century to curious developments, was that the title should descend through Charles Le Moyne's heirs, *male or female*. The third baron left no son, but a daughter, who assumed the title of baroness. She married Captain

David Alexander Grant, of the 84th Regiment, and their son became the fourth baron. The last holder of the title assumed it upon the death of his father in 1879. Up to this time it had never been officially recognised by the Imperial Government, but in 1880, after considerable correspondence between the Colonial Office and the Canadian Government, Her late Majesty Queen Victoria was graciously pleased to recognise Charles Colmore Grant as Baron de Longueüil. The seventh baron died in Florida, a few years ago, without issue, and was succeeded by his brother.

The Canadian *Magna Charta* is what is known as the British North American Act, 1867, which united the provinces of Ontario and Quebec (then called Canada) with New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and made provision for the entry of the other provinces, and of the unorganised territories in the West. In 1870, the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company in those territories were purchased by Canada, and from a portion thereof was constituted the province of Manitoba. British Columbia joined the Confederation in 1871, and Prince Edward Island two years later. Subsequently the great North-West was divided into the districts of Keewatin, Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabaska. Keewatin became an appendage of Manitoba, or rather was placed under the control of the Governor of Manitoba; and the other territories were combined under one territorial government. Newfoundland, although she had sent delegates to the Conference of 1864, which brought about confederation, decided to remain outside the Dominion, and despite some half-hearted efforts since, she has not yet thought it desirable to throw in her lot with her big neighbour. The Newfoundland election of 1904, which resulted in an overwhelming victory for the Bond Government, was significant in the fact that the members of the Opposition who had ventured to advocate union with the Dominion were in nearly every case beaten. The entry of Newfoundland into the Canadian

Confederation is, therefore, hardly a possibility of the near future.

The underlying principles of the Canadian constitution are: 'A federation with a central government exercising general powers over all the members of the union, and a number of local governments having the control and management of certain matters naturally and conveniently belonging to them, while each government is administered in accordance with the British system of parliamentary institutions.'

The government of the Dominion consists of four parts: (1) the Governor-General, representing the Crown; (2) the Privy Council, or Cabinet; (3) the Senate; and (4) the House of Commons. The Governor-General is appointed by the King, and holds office nominally for five years. He is the commander-in-chief of the naval and military forces in Canada; he appoints the lieutenant-governors and judges, and has authority to commute the sentences of the courts; but in all these cases he follows the advice of his responsible ministers.

The Cabinet or Executive consists of fourteen or fifteen members, nearly all of whom are heads of departments of the Civil Service. The ministers are in every case members of either the House of Commons or Senate, and are consequently responsible to the people, retaining office only so long as they retain the confidence of the people.

The Senate is not elective, but is made up of life members appointed by the Governor-in-Council.* In

* The father of the Canadian Senate and Parliament is Hon. David Wark, of Fredericton, N.B., who, on February 19th, 1904, was one hundred years of age, and is consequently the oldest legislator in the world. He has been over sixty-one years in public life, and has taken an active part in nearly every important question that has come before the Canadian Parliament. He is a strong believer in the policy of free trade within the British Empire. He still enjoys good health, and not only attended the last session of Parliament, but took a lively interest in the deliberations of the Senate. The occurrence of his 100th birthday was taken advantage

this respect it corresponds more closely to the House of Lords, on which it was patterned, than to the American Senate, which is elective.

The House of Commons is the direct representative of the people. Its members are elected by what is practically universal suffrage. They serve for a term of five years, unless the House is dissolved in the meantime. Each member, as well as each senator, must be a British subject. Members of the House of Commons do not now require any property qualification, but senators must hold real estate to the value of $4000.*

Canadian legislatures, notably the House of Commons, have listened in their day to men of genuine eloquence; men who as orators would compare favourably with the most eloquent statesmen of other lands. The House of Commons has had the somewhat unique experience of listening to a debate in which an English leader held his hearers spellbound on one side, and an orator of Quebec replied brilliantly in French. The two Papineaus, the Bedards, Vallières de St. Real, A. N. Morin, L. H. Lafontaine, Chauveau L. S. Morin, C. J. Laberge, Honore Mercier, and last but by no means least, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, have upheld the French-Canadian gift of oratory in debate. Robert Baldwin, M. S. Bidwell, John Rolph, W. H. Draper ('Sweet William'), R. J. Uniackl, Henry Sherwood, Sir John Macdonald, George Brown, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, J. H. Cameron, A. T. Galt, William Macdougall (one of the best debaters that the Canadian

of by the members of the Senate and House of Commons to present him with a portrait of himself, painted specially for the occasion. The aged Senator was the recipient of congratulations from every quarter of the Empire, including a cable message from His Majesty the King.

* 'There is,' says a well-known English journalist who has recently visited Canada, 'an informality and an openness about the Canadian Parliament which is like the openness and spaciousness of Canada itself. You are not in the constant presence of barriers, and nowhere in Canada need a man feel that there are privileges beyond his reach.'

Parliament has ever known), L. A. Wilmot, L. S. Huntington, Joseph Howe, J. W. Johnston, Sir Charles Tupper, Sir Oliver Mowat, Sir R. J. Cartwright, G. W. Ross, Edward Blake, William Miller, George E. Foster, Charles Fitzpatrick, William Paterson, Dalton McCarthy, J. W. Longley, and R. L. Borden, the present leader of the Opposition at Ottawa, are among English-speaking statesmen who have in their day discussed public questions in the Canadian legislatures, with force, directness, and genuine eloquence.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Hon. Mr. Foster are still in the House of Commons, and perhaps two or three others might be mentioned who possess some degree of eloquence in debate; but for the most part the quality of the speeches that one hears nowadays in that Chamber is distinctly mediocre. There is nothing to compare with the stirring appeals of Thomas D'Arcy McGee, which used to carry old and hardened politicians completely off their feet; nor is there anything comparable to the brilliant sword play between Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his famous antagonist, Sir John Macdonald; or even to the somewhat ponderous duels between Sir Charles Tupper and Sir Richard Cartwright. One misses, too, the conflicts, if they could be called conflicts, between Dr. Landerkin and Nicholas Flood Davin. Dr. Landerkin delighted to bait the brilliant and quick-witted Irishman, whose retort, always delivered as quick as lightning, and sharp-pointed with wit and satire, used to be the delight of the House. However, we seem to have fallen upon more prosaic days, here as in the Imperial House, and it is rare indeed that one has an opportunity of listening to anything comparable to the eloquence of Canadian orators of the past.

Quebec is the pivotal province, so far as representation is concerned, its representation in the House of Commons having been fixed by the constitution through the far-sightedness of a famous French Canadian statesman, Sir George Cartier, at sixty-five. The representation of the other provinces bears the same proportion to their

population, as ascertained at each decennial census, as the number sixty-five bears to the population of Quebec at the same date. The representation is readjusted after each census, in order that the vital principle of representation by population shall be clearly recognised. There are at present 295 members and senators in the Dominion Parliament, 214 members, including the new member for the Yukon, and 81 senators. Under the new Redistribution Act, which came into effect at the general election of 1904, there is a considerable change in the representative strength of the several provinces. Ontario and the Maritime Provinces lose several members, while the West, which has been increasing rapidly in population, gains correspondingly.

The Canadian union is, as its name implies, a federal and not a legislative union. The interests of the country at large are served by the Dominion Parliament, while local interests are left to the management of the several provincial legislatures. The central government at Ottawa deals with the public debt, trade and commerce, taxation, military and naval defence, criminal law, penitentiaries, Indian affairs, the postal service, the census, banking, quarantine and marine hospitals, sea coast and inland fisheries, interprovincial and international ferries, currency and coinage, beacons, buoys and lighthouses, weights and measures, interest, bankruptcy, naturalisation, navigation and shipping, patents and copyrights, and bills of exchange. The provinces retain the management of direct taxation, provincial loans, public lands, timber and minerals, prisons, hospitals, asylums and charities, local public works, education, licences, property and civil rights, and municipal institutions. The revenue of the Dominion is derived mainly from customs and excise duties; that of the provinces is obtained from federal subsidies, timber and mining dues, fees and licences, and direct taxation.

Both the American Republic and the Dominion are constituted as a federal union, but there is a radical

difference between the two systems. The sovereign power in the Dominion rests in the central government; while in the United States the sovereign power remains practically in the individual States. Under the Canadian constitution 'all matters not coming within the classes of subjects assigned exclusively to the legislatures of the provinces' belong to the Federal Government; whereas under the United States constitution all matters not exclusively assigned to the federal authority belong to the individual States.

The administration of the Dominion Government is carried on through a number of departments, presided over by Cabinet Ministers. The President of the Privy Council has supervision of a small department which looks after the routine work of the Cabinet. The control of the North-West Mounted Police is also entrusted to him. The Canadian Premier usually takes the Presidency of the Council, the onerous duties of the Premiership being found quite as much as one man can sustain, without adding the administration of one of the heavier departments of the service.

The Minister of Justice and Attorney-General has supervision of matters affecting the administration of justice in Canada. The prerogative of mercy, or the remission of sentences imposed by the courts, practically rests with him, although it is vested in the Governor-General in Council. The Minister of Justice is also entrusted with the superintendence of the penitentiaries of Canada and the control of the Dominion police.

The Minister of Finance is the Canadian Chancellor of the Exchequer, and has charge of all matters affecting the finances and expenditure of the Dominion, currency, insurance, etc.

There are three Departments concerned in the regulation of trade and commerce and the collection of the national revenue: the Departments of Trade and Commerce, of Customs, and of Inland Revenue. The first deals with the commercial affairs of the Dominion in

their broader aspects—foreign trade, subsidies, Chinese immigration, etc. The other two are charged with the collection of customs and excise duties respectively.

The Department of Agriculture covers a multitude of interests, many of which seem to hold little or no connexion one with another; in fact, the Department of Agriculture has the reputation of having been made the dumping ground for odds and ends of federal business which could not be conveniently handled in any of the other departments. The Minister of Agriculture has charge of agriculture, experimental farms, immigration, public health and quarantine, marine and immigrant hospitals, the census, the statistical office, copyright and patents, the Dominion archives, etc.

The Secretary of State holds one of the lightest departments in the Civil Service. His portfolio is, in fact, rather a relic of the past than an office of practical utility. He has charge of all correspondence of a general character, as well as that between the Federal Government and the provinces; he issues commissions, registers all documents passed under the Great Seal, of which he is also the custodian, and controls the Government Printing Bureau.

The Department of Marine and Fisheries is charged, as its name implies, with the sea-coast fisheries (the inland fisheries having been transferred to the provinces by a decision of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council), the shipping interests of the country, lighthouses, buoys and beacons, steamers and vessels belonging to the Government, inspection of steamers, etc.

The Minister of Militia and Defence is responsible for the administration of militia affairs, fortifications, armouries, the military schools, the Royal Military College at Kingston, rifle ranges, etc. His department is divided into two sections: the civil and the military. The former is presided over by the Minister's Deputy. Under the new Militia Act and Regulations, which came into effect in November, 1904, the office of Major-General Commanding

the Militia is abolished, and is replaced by a Militia Council, corresponding to the Army Council in England (see chapter on the Militia).

The Minister of the Interior presides over several important departments and branches of the State service. The public lands of the Dominion are under his control, and he has a large share in the regulation and encouragement of immigration. Indian affairs are dealt with in a separate department, under his charge. He is the head of the Geological Survey, the Surveyor-General's branch, the astronomical branch, etc.

The Postmaster-General is charged with the direction of the post-offices and postal service of Canada.* He is also Minister of Labour, a department established a year or two ago to look after the interests of labour throughout the Dominion, and to act as a species of permanent board of arbitration for the conflicting interests of capital and labour.

The Ministers of Public Works and of Railways and Canals are charged respectively with the construction, maintenance and repair of public buildings, wharves, etc., and the national railways and canals of Canada. The construction of that portion of the new transcontinental railway from Moncton to Winnipeg is under the control of a special Commission appointed by the Government.

There are several members of the Cabinet who do not hold portfolios; and one member of the Government who does not possess a seat in the Cabinet—the Solicitor-General. For several years the Ministers of Customs and Inland Revenue—then called Controllers—were also classed as Ministers not of the Cabinet, but they have since been raised to full Cabinet rank. The Dominion Government is represented in London by a High Commissioner, an office created in 1880, and which has been successively filled by the late Sir Alexander

* One cannot avoid mentioning in this connexion the conspicuous success with which the present Postmaster-General, Sir William Mulock, has administered his department, and which has earned for him the title of 'The Man who Did.'

Galt, Sir Charles Tupper, and Lord Strathcona, the present occupant. The duties discharged by this official are many and various, and have always been ably and faithfully discharged, and never more so than by Lord Strathcona, whose good offices and munificent hospitality so many Canadians have shared and profited by.

Each of the provinces of the Dominion has practically complete control of its own internal affairs. The local government consists of a lieutenant-governor, appointed by the Governor-General in Council—in other words, by the federal administration; an executive council, responsible to the legislature; a legislative assembly, elected by the people; and in two provinces, Quebec and Nova Scotia, a legislative council — corresponding to the Dominion Senate—appointed by the Crown in right of the respective provinces. In Prince Edward Island the case is somewhat different. In 1893, the legislative council was abolished and merged in the assembly. The fifteen constituencies now return each a councillor, elected on a special real estate qualification, and a member elected on the general provincial franchise. Both members and councillors sit in the same chamber, and have the same powers and privileges.

The legislative assemblies of the provinces, as well as the Dominion House of Commons, are elected on a very liberal franchise — manhood suffrage in most of the provinces, and in the others a property qualification so slight as to amount practically to manhood suffrage. Whatever the experience may be in other lands, manhood suffrage has been found to be admirably adapted to Canada, where the percentage of illiteracy is small, and public questions are discussed in the Press and at public meetings, and are also understood, even in the most remote districts.

The number of members of the legislative assemblies varies from ninety-four to thirty in Prince Edward Island. They do not require any property qualification, but must be British born or naturalised subjects of the King, and male

citizens of the age of twenty-one years. They are paid a sessional indemnity varying from $800 in Quebec to $160 in Prince Edward Island. The members of the Dominion House of Commons and Senate receive $1500 for each session.

The question of the salaries paid in Canada to Cabinet Ministers, Lieutenant-Governors, and Judges has been much discussed of late. Salaries which were reasonably adequate at Confederation, nearly forty years ago, are utterly inadequate now. It has especially been urged that the Premier, who only receives $9000 a year, should be given a salary more in keeping with the dignity and importance of his high office. It is also urged that Parliament should vote an annual remuneration for the leader of the Opposition, whose arduous duties inevitably affect prejudicially his private income. Such a step was actually taken, some years ago, by the Ontario Legislature, in favour of the then leader of the Opposition in that Chamber (the present Chief Justice Sir W. R. Meredith), who, however, declined its acceptance.*

The Dominion and provincial laws providing for the independence of the legislatures are strictly enforced, as are also the statutes against bribery and corruption, which are generally a reproduction of the Imperial statutes. All cases of disputed elections are tried by the judges, a system which has been found to work admirably.

The executive councils of the provinces consist of from five to eight members, including an Attorney-General, Provincial Secretary, Treasurer (who is the provincial Minister of Finance), and a Commissioner of Public Works. In some of the provinces there is also a Commissioner of Agriculture, and in others a Minister of Education. In Nova Scotia and British Columbia, where the mines and minerals are specially valuable, a separate department is entrusted with their control.

The power of disallowance is one of the most delicate

* *Vide* Morgan's 'Canadian Men and Women of the Time,' 1898, p. 625.

functions of government, and has to be exercised with great discretion. The constitution gives the Imperial Government the right to disallow or reject an Act of the Dominion Parliament at variance with the general interests of the Empire; and similarly the Canadian Government is vested with authority to disallow any Act of the provincial legislatures which may conflict with the general interests of Canada or of the Empire. Previous to 1876 the Imperial Government could disallow any Act of a provincial legislature in British North America, but at Confederation this power was vested in the Dominion Government. The right of disallowance has seldom been exercised by the Imperial Government, and only very occasionally by the Dominion Government.* A case in point was the disallowance a few years ago, by the Ottawa Government, of a British Columbia Act directed against Asiatic immigration. This measure was so sweeping in its terms that it excluded Japanese as well as Chinese immigrants, and on Imperial grounds it was at once disallowed by the Dominion Government.

By the Act of Confederation it was provided that the Federal Government should pay to each of the provinces an annual subsidy or money grant from the Dominion Treasury, to assist in the maintenance of the provincial Governments. These subsidies, of course, vary with the different provinces, Ontario and Quebec receiving over a million dollars annually, and the other provinces in proportion. The total amount paid out in this way by the Dominion Government is about five million dollars. These subsidies form the chief source of provincial revenue, and are added to by various forms of land and timber dues, royalties on coal, iron ore, etc., licences, fees, and direct taxation, such as taxes levied on banks, commercial corporations, etc., and succession duties. Ontario raises a large revenue from land and timber dues; Quebec

* Since Confederation there have been altogether about ninety disallowances of Provincial Acts, of which considerably over half were Manitoba and British Columbia Acts.

does almost equally well in these departments; Nova Scotia and British Columbia depend chiefly upon the sale of mineral lands, and royalties upon coal and other minerals raised at the mine.

With the exception of Manitoba and the North-West Territories, where they remain under the control of the Dominion Government, the public lands of Canada are vested in the provinces. British Columbia, on entering Confederation, retained its public lands with the exception of what is called the 'railway belt,' which was conveyed to the Dominion for the construction of the Canadian Pacific railway. Since the abolition of the seigneurial tenure in Quebec, the holding and conveyance of land in Canada have been brought to that degree of simplicity which is most consistent with the conditions of a new country. The conveyance of land in the Dominion is entirely free from the encumbrances and restrictions that still hold good in England.

As has been elsewhere indicated, Canada enjoyed little or no measure of self-government until after the surrender of the colony to England, and if this was the case as regards the general administration of the country, it applied still more to municipal government. As a matter of fact, municipal institutions only came very gradually under British rule in Canada. Ontario, or Upper Canada, was the first to see the manifest advantages of placing purely local affairs in the hands of local authorities. By the Act of 1841, which united Upper and Lower Canada, municipal control was extended to both provinces. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick held aloof for some time, and it was not until some time after Confederation that municipal institutions were introduced in these Maritime Provinces. In Prince Edward Island municipal affairs are still to a large extent managed by the legislature of the province, although the two towns of Charlottetown and Summerside have special Acts of Incorporation giving them elected mayors and councils, with the right of taxation for municipal purposes.

Although municipal institutions were practically unknown under French rule, history mentions one isolated example, though a very short-lived one. When Frontenac was Governor of New France he applied himself energetically to the task of improving the administration of Quebec, then the chief town in the colony. He planned a municipal government consisting of three aldermen, the senior of whom was to be mayor. They were to be elected by the people. One was to retire annually, and his place filled by a new election, the Governor reserving the right to approve or veto the election. Frontenac also framed regulations for the administration of Quebec, in conjunction with a number of representative citizens. When the matter came before the French Colonial Minister, however, he severely condemned the project, and it was never again taken up until Quebec had become the capital of a British colony. The public roads, however, were under the control of *grand voyers*, appointed by the Governor, who exercised control until the establishment of municipal corporations in 1841.

The Confederation Act gave each province the control of municipal institutions within its borders, and, with the single exception of Prince Edward Island, the provinces now possess satisfactory municipal systems, providing for the local management of local affairs. The governing body in every case is the council, whether it be a city council or a county council, or a village, parish, town, or township council. The presiding officer of city and town councils is the mayor; in county councils he is called the warden; and in village or township councils he is known as the reeve in Ontario, and the mayor in Quebec. In all the provinces but Quebec the members of the respective councils—aldermen or councillors—are elected annually. In Quebec a councillor remains in office for three years, subject, however, to the condition that two councillors must be elected or appointed two years consecutively, and three every three years. The mayors of cities are in nearly all cases elected annually by a general

vote of the people. The aldermen are sometimes elected by the ratepayers under the ward system, three aldermen being elected for each ward; and sometimes by a general vote. The ward system was borrowed from the United States, and became very popular in Canada, but the method of electing aldermen by a general vote of the whole city is growing in favour, especially in Ontario, where it is found to bring a better class of men into municipal politics, and to make for better and more economical administration. It does away with the vicious principle, inherent in the ward system, of an alderman agreeing to support a project in another ward, good or bad, in consideration of receiving support for some matter affecting his own ward: in very vulgar terms, 'You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours.'

In municipal elections, both electors and candidates must be British subjects. Voting is by ballot in all the provinces except Quebec. Widows and unmarried women, rated on the assessment roll, can vote in Ontario; in Manitoba and British Columbia all women who are taxed in their own right can vote.

The municipal councils have power to deal with all matters coming within their proper jurisdiction, such as waterworks, schools, exhibitions, cemeteries, gas and water companies, planting and preservation of trees, places of amusement, parks, bathing-houses, public morals, sewage and drainage, public libraries, charities, etc. In certain special cases, such as municipal aid to railways, street-lighting plants, or waterworks, a vote of the ratepayers and property-holders must be taken. The byelaw is first prepared, and then submitted to the people for approval, under the Referendum system of Switzerland.

Canada thus has a complete system of self-government, from the humble village council up to the federal parliament—a system which, while not entirely faultless, has proved itself well adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the country.

As the political system of Canada shows a complete

chain of government, from the local municipal councillor up through all the stages of county, provincial, and federal administration, to the British Sovereign, so the same graduated principle will be found in the judicial system of the country. Stipendiary or police magistrates, justices of the peace, and records' courts in Quebec deal with the less important judicial business, such as the recovery of small debts and also certain classes of criminal cases. Above these come the county courts, which are vested with larger powers in civil and criminal cases. The judges in these courts are appointed, paid, and removed by the Dominion Government. The circuit courts of the province of Quebec fill somewhat the same position as the county courts in the other provinces. Then above these inferior courts are the high courts of justice, holding unlimited jurisdiction in all civil and criminal cases. In the early days of British rule in Canada these courts, following the English practice, were known as the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Chancery, but these have now been practically abolished, and the same court can try and determine any case of law or equity that comes before it, law and equity having been merged. In Prince Edward Island, however, the Chancery Court is still in existence as a separate tribunal, though much simplified in its procedure.

The Probate Courts in the Maritime Provinces, and the Surrogate Courts in Ontario and Manitoba, deal with all testamentary matters and causes, subject to the revision of the superior courts.

Special courts are provided for the trial of controverted elections, the jurisdiction in such cases being vested in the judges of the superior courts, one of whom sits in provincial cases, and two in the case of controverted or disputed elections for the Dominion House.

Divorce Courts exist in the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, and in British Columbia the superior court of the province claims the same jurisdiction. Cases of divorce arising in the other

provinces are dealt with by the Dominion Senate, which has a special committee and special rules on the subject. It is, however, subject to the ratification of the House of Commons and the sanction of the Governor-General, and forms the subject-matter of a Bill.

All the provinces possess Supreme Courts of Appeal. Appeals lie from the inferior high courts to the high courts of justice, and thence to the Courts of Appeal. From the judgments of these highest provincial courts, some cases may be taken to the Supreme Court of Canada, and finally to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England—the highest court of appeal in the British Empire. In all these appeals to higher courts, certain restrictions and limitations are provided, to avoid unnecessary and inappropriate litigation. The Supreme Court of Canada, which sits at Ottawa, consists of a chief justice and five puisne judges, two of whom must be appointed from Quebec. Besides the many appeal cases that come before this court from the various provinces, it is a court of review for controverted election cases, and also deals with important questions of Dominion or provincial legislation, referred to them by the Governor-General in Council, or by certain public departments, or the Senate, or House of Commons.

The only other federal court is the Exchequer Court of Canada, which deals with cases in which patents, land expropriation, and the interests of the Crown are involved. This court, which is composed of one judge, has also conferred upon it the powers of an Admiralty Court, to hear and determine claims arising out of navigation, shipping, etc., in Canadian waters, inland as well as coastal. The Admiralty jurisdiction is divided into several districts, where justice may be administered by local assistant judges, when the judge in Exchequer cannot conveniently attend.

The present Duke of Argyll, upon the conclusion of his term as Governor-General of Canada, paid this striking tribute to the political system of the country—

'A judicature above suspicion; self-governing communities entrusting to a strong central Government all national interests; the toleration of all faiths, with favour to none; a franchise recognising the rights of labour, by exclusion only of the idler; the maintenance of a Government not privileged to exist for any fixed term, but ever susceptible to the change of public opinion, and ever open, through a responsible Ministry, to the scrutiny of the people—these are the features of your rising power.'

CHAPTER IV

TRADE AND COMMERCE

CANADA, within her comparatively brief existence, has tried almost every fiscal experiment known to the civilised world. In the early days, under the French *régime*, the colony groaned under the iron rule of successive monopolies. It was strictly forbidden to trade with the neighbouring New England colonies; Montreal was even denied for a time the right to trade directly with France, but must get all her supplies through Quebec; foreign goods when found in the country were publicly burned; vessels engaged in foreign trade were treated like pirates, and confiscated along with their cargoes.

The French official attitude was expressed by Montcalm, in one of his letters. 'Let us beware,' he wrote, 'how we allow the establishment of manufactures in Canada; she would become proud and mutinous like the English. . . . So long as France is a nursery to Canada, let not the Canadians be allowed to trade, but kept to their wandering, laborious life with the savages, and to their military exercises.'

There spoke the military commander, but his policy was too arbitrary even for New France. To barter is inherent in human nature, savage or civilised, and men will do it whether their leaders approve or not.

When Canada was ceded to England, the old system of restricted trade and burdensome taxes gave place to a policy of greater freedom; but still Canadians were prohibited from carrying on any foreign trade. The

Navigation Laws confined the outside trade of Canada to the mother country and the thirteen colonies. Thus there existed, in the first half of the last century, just such an inter-imperial preferential policy as is now being advocated in England. Canada gave a preference in her markets, such as they were, to the products of the mother country, and Great Britain encouraged the trade of the colonies by means of substantial reductions in her tariff, wherever colonial products came into competition with those of foreign countries. Canada's trade with the mother country steadily grew, but fell to pieces with the abolition of the Corn Laws. It is a remarkable tribute to the patriotism of the Canadians of those days that, in spite of the widespread ruin to Canadian industries that followed upon the establishment of free trade in England, the agitation for annexation to the United States, which was watched with indifference, if not approval, by the British Government of the day, found comparatively few supporters throughout the Canadian provinces.

From 1855 to 1866 a Reciprocity Treaty was in force between Canada and the United States, under the operation of which Canadian trade and industries once more revived. The treaty was abrogated by the Republic, but the effect was this time by no means so disastrous as the change in the British fiscal system had been twenty years previously. Canadians were now becoming self-reliant, and in many respects this throwing of them upon their own resources was the best possible thing that could have happened to the young country. One of the attendant results was the confederation of the scattered colonies, with their often antagonistic interests and hostile tariffs, into one homogeneous Dominion, possessing all the elements of national strength and character.

The 'new nationality,' as Canada came to be regarded, driven out of the markets of the United States, turned elsewhere for customers for her surplus products; to the mother country, to Germany, France, and other European countries, and to the various British colonies; and her

BREAKING THE PRAIRIE, WESTERN CANADA.

quest was not in vain. The politicians of the United States, who had confidently expected that Canada could not live without their markets, and must inevitably seek annexation to their country,* were grievously disappointed at this state of things. In place of a weak colony, they found a strong, self-governing community, which, with its boundless natural resources, and the energy, industry, and resourcefulness of its people, must within a comparatively short time become a serious competitor of the United States in the world's markets.

With Confederation came free trade among the various provinces of the new Dominion, and a uniform duty of 15 per cent. upon all imported goods, British as well as foreign.

In 1872, the then Conservative Government announced a considerable increase in the tariff, the object being to counteract the growing tendency of the United States to dump their surplus products upon the Canadian market, at figures with which Canadian manufacturers could not hope to compete. The country became alarmed at the proposed increases, and the result was that the Macdonald Government, which was already in bad odour on account of the so-called 'Pacific scandal,' was defeated at the polls, and the Liberals came in, under Alexander Mackenzie. In 1878, Sir John Macdonald once more became Premier, and at once established what he called the 'national policy'—a policy of avowed protection for home industries. Under the new tariff, Canada entered upon a period of unexampled prosperity. After a time, changed conditions at home and abroad necessitated a revision of the tariff, and this revision was continued from year to year—'lopping off the mouldering branches,' as it was irreverently styled in Parliament—down to the close of the several Conservative administrations.

* U.S. Consul-General Potter openly stated at the Detroit Trade Convention of 1864 that the object the American Government had in view in abrogating the Reciprocity Treaty was to force Canada into annexation.

With the triumph of the Liberals, under Mr. (now Sir) Wilfrid Laurier, in 1896, the 'national policy,' which in some respects had outlived its usefulness, was abolished, and was replaced by a comparatively moderate revenue tariff. Wherever the credit is due, it is a fact that within the last six or seven years the revenue of the Dominion has increased by leaps and bounds; both exports and imports are steadily climbing upward;* the industries of the country were never in a more satisfactory condition; and the great North-West, with its marvellous potentialities, is increasing in wealth and population at a rate which almost defies comparison, and which bids fair to make Canada, within a few years, the greatest wheat-producing nation in the world.

The banking system of Canada is the result of an adaptation of the British and American systems to the peculiar conditions prevailing in Canada. Its early framework was almost entirely American, but its methods have been modelled largely upon those of Great Britain, and especially of Scotland and Ireland. The first banks established in Canada were the Quebec Bank and the Bank of Montreal, both of which commenced business in 1817, and both of which have continued and increased in stability and prosperity up to the present day. The capital of the Bank of Montreal in 1819 was £87,500, or $350,000; in 1859, it had increased to $5,928,820; and it is now $12,000,000, the largest capital possessed by any bank in America. This bank was the first to adopt the policy of branches, which has since become the universal practice in Canada, and is one of the many points in which the Canadian banking system differs from that of the United States. The Bank of Montreal now has nearly fifty branches, in every part of Canada, as well as agencies in London, New York, and Chicago.

* In 1903, the imports were valued at $241,214,961, and the exports at $225,849,724, a total of $467,000,000, an increase of $43,000,000 over the previous year, and an increase of $220,000,000 over the figures for 1893.

SYDNEY, CAPE BRETON, NOVA SCOTIA.

in Town and Country

As the country became settled, other banks were organised, in Upper Canada or Ontario, in the Maritime Provinces, and later in Manitoba and British Columbia. The most important, next to the Bank of Montreal, is the Canadian Bank of Commerce, whose numerous branches extend from Halifax to Dawson City.

The keynote of the Canadian banking system has been from the first efficient Government control. The policy has always been to grant bank charters with caution, and under safeguards which would absolutely ensure the interests of the general public. The result has been that bank failures are almost unknown in Canada, while in the United States they have at different periods reached such proportions as almost to amount to a national calamity, and have entailed immense losses upon the community. Under the Canadian banking system all bills below the value of $5 are issued by the Government, and the amount so issued is regulated by Act of Parliament, and is covered by a reserve fund of specie and debentures.* Notes of $5 and over are issued by the banks themselves. The notes of every Canadian bank are taken at par everywhere throughout the Dominion. Provision is also made by which the banks pay into a government fund five per cent. of the value of their average yearly circulation as a redemption fund, to be used at any time to ensure that notes of a failed bank shall be redeemed at par to their holders.

The elasticity of the Canadian banking system is one of its most admirable features. Unlike the American system, no arbitrary limit is fixed in Canada as a specie reserve for each bank. The conservative management which has become practically universal in Canadian banks, the double liability of shareholders, and the efficiency of Government control have been found to be ample security for note-holders under all circumstances.

* A branch of the Royal Mint is now under construction at Ottawa, and Canada will in future make her own metal money, as well as her paper money.

The banks are thus enabled to increase their circulation when the needs of commerce require it, and to decrease it as their needs become less exacting; a system which is ideally adapted to a country like Canada, whose trade expands and contracts with the seasons. There has been a very large development in the banking business of the Dominion during the past few years. The public deposits have grown, in the past six years, from $196,000,000 to $424,000,000, the loans from $227,000,000 to $453,000,000, and the paid-up capital from $61,000,000 to $76,000,000. There are at present in Canada 36 banks, with 1049 branches.

Napoleon the Great described agriculture as the soul of a nation, manufactures the brain, and transportation the limbs. Lord Bacon had put the same statement in other words several centuries before, when he said that three things make a nation great and prosperous—a fertile soil, busy workshops, and easy transportation of men and goods. How does Canada meet these three requirements?

First as to agriculture, in which we may include not only grain and vegetables, but dairy products and cattle. Canada's first and greatest asset is her wheat-fields. Not only in the extent of her wheat-growing area, but in the capacity per acre, Canada stands first in the world. Given the agricultural population to till her fields, and no other nation can attempt to compete with her. Without counting the farm lands of Ontario and the other eastern provinces, there are 135 million acres of land in Manitoba and the North-West capable of yielding abundant harvests. A gigantic wheat-field, 1000 miles long by 300 miles wide —one can hardly grasp the full significance of such an area. In Manitoba alone there are 30 million acres suitable for wheat raising. Of these less than four millions are at present under cultivation, which yielded in 1904 50 million bushels of wheat, not to mention other grains. The actual average yield for the last ten years is over twenty bushels to the acre. At a conservative estimate

this would give a possible yield of 600,000,000 bushels of wheat, when Manitoba's entire wheat-raising area is under cultivation; and the total world demand for wheat is at present only 3000 millions. But Manitoba forms only a comparatively small portion of the agricultural area of the Canadian West. The 100 million acres of the North-West capable of bearing wheat are only just beginning to be farmed, but the crops already raised show that the average yield per acre is fully equal to that of Manitoba. Compare this average yield of 20 bushels per acre with the world's average of 12·7 bushels, or the United States average of 12·2 bushels, and it will readily be seen that the potentialities of the wheat-fields of Canada are beyond comparison.

An ever-increasing stream of immigrants is pouring into the North-West, and these new citizens are for the most part the very best that could be desired. They take up the quarter sections (160 acres) granted free by the Dominion Government, or purchase land from the Canadian Pacific Railway, or from one of the several land companies. As the soil of the Western plains, unlike the farm-lands of Eastern Canada or of other lands, needs no initial process other than ploughing to prepare it for wheat raising, every additional farm that is established means an increase in the aggregate yield of grain—not several years hence, but at the next harvest. When 65 million bushels of wheat and 120 million bushels of wheat, oats, and barley could be raised in 1904 by the comparative handful of farmers in the Canadian West, one need not be a mathematical expert to see that within a very few years Canada will be in a position, as stated by Lord Strathcona, to supply the entire needs of the mother country. It is no idle boast to say that Canada will be, within a comparatively short time, the Granary of the Empire.

Among the many misconceptions that exist abroad in regard to Canada, one of the most persistent has been that this country is frost-bound throughout the greater

portion of the year—'Our Lady of the Snows,' as Mr. Kipling described it, with more poetry than truth. As a matter of fact, the average duration of the Canadian winter is about three and a half months, and even this gives no proper idea of the seasons—for instance, to an Englishman accustomed to the gradual fading of one season into the next. In the Dominion the seasons, like the people, are strenuous. There is no dilly-dallying. While the winter lasts, it is winter indeed. There is no mistake about it. But one gets nothing more than a passing glimpse of spring, and the country plunges into summer with a rapidity that leaves the unaccustomed observer gasping.* The growth of vegetation is so rapid that the crops in the middle of July are as far advanced as those of England, in spite of the latter's earlier start. Even the severity of the winter is a blessing in disguise. The melting of the frost in the ground takes the place of early spring rains, and adds to the fertility of the soil.

Wheat and other grains, though they form so important a part of Canada's agricultural resources, are by no means all. During the past quarter of a century the exported surplus from the farms of the Dominion has amounted to 1000 million dollars, and the greater portion of this belongs to the last few years. Considerably more than half the amount was credited to animal and dairy products. This department of Canadian industrial life, which is still in its infancy, yielded a profit on exports in 1904 of nearly 70 million dollars; an increase of 10 million dollars over the previous year. The

* Lieut.-Col. G. T. Denison, the well-known author of 'Modern Cavalry,' relates a good story in connexion with the Canadian winter. Visiting at a country house in England some years ago, he was shown a pair of snow-shoes, which had been brought home from Canada by a member of the family who had been doing military service in some out-of-the-way portion of the Dominion. 'These will be quite familiar to you, no doubt,' said one of the ladies. 'On the contrary,' replied the genial colonel, 'they are the first I have seen; in the city where I come from (Toronto) we don't use snow-shoes!'

trade has more than doubled in the last decade. Horses, cattle, sheep, and poultry are being exported from Canada every year in increasing numbers. In certain portions of the North-West, especially around the foot-hills of the Rockies, are to be found ideal ranching lands. These have only been utilised to a comparatively small extent until quite recently, but many wealthy and experienced American ranchers, who have found the conditions in the Western States, consequent upon the increasing population, unfavourable to ranching, are turning their attention to the North-West, and are bringing their herds over the border into Canadian territory. This will result in a very large increase in the export cattle trade of the Dominion.

As an exporter of dairy products, Canada stands first among the nations. She supplies sixty per cent. of the 265 million pounds of cheese imported by Great Britain and Ireland each year. This industry is of quite recent growth, and, both in its systematic development and the quality of the products, credit is chiefly due to the wise initiative and guidance of the Dominion Department of Agriculture, with its dairy experts and experimental farms throughout the country. One cannot walk many miles along any rural road in Quebec or Ontario without coming upon a cheese factory, and everywhere one goes one finds in front of the farm-houses small platforms, on which are placed cans of milk, to be collected in waggons and taken to the factory. In many parts of the province the cheese industry has taken such hold on the farmers, that it is more difficult to buy a quart of milk there than in one of the neighbouring towns. The same conditions apply, in varying degree, to several of the other provinces.

Creameries, too, have sprung up everywhere throughout the Dominion, supplied with cream by the farmers in the same systematic way. Here the manufacture of butter has been reduced to a science, and the product of the creameries—oblong squares of butter, one pound in weight, neatly covered with waxed paper, and usually of

excellent quality—is sold everywhere in the Canadian cities, and has almost entirely superseded the old-time pats and rolls made on the farms. The exports of Canadian butter have increased almost as rapidly as those of cheese. While there were only 170 creameries in Canada in 1890, there are now about 1200. Ten or twelve years ago the Dominion shipped to England not more than one pound of butter to every 232 pounds shipped by other countries; but now the proportion has been reduced to one in twelve. Nearly 28 million pounds were exported from Canada last year, valued at $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

Many Londoners discovered for the first time, when they saw the Canadian Arch at the coronation of their Majesties, that Canada not only produced every species of cereal and every kind of vegetable, but—what must have seemed much more amazing, in view of the 'Lady of the Snows' theory—a great variety of fruit. A few years ago Canada was a large importer of fruit of all kinds, and exported very little. Now the exports of Canadian apples pay for the imports of every description of foreign fruit—oranges, lemons, pineapples, bananas, dates, limes, etc., of all of which Canadians consume large quantities, and leave a credit balance over and above of several million dollars.

The two chief fruit districts of the Dominion are the Niagara Peninsula and the Annapolis Valley, the former in Ontario and the latter in Nova Scotia. Apples of many varieties and of the best quality are grown in both these districts, and shipped in large quantities to the United States and Great Britain. Peaches, pears, grapes, cherries, plums, strawberries, and other fruits are grown here to perfection. Some years the apple or other fruit crops have been so large as to actually become a drug on the market. The intense heat of the long midsummer days lends an almost semi-tropical character to the Canadian season, and ripens many fruits which no one but a Canadian would expect to find in this favoured

land. It also makes it possible to bring the tobacco plant to maturity, and the tobacco industry is rapidly increasing in importance.

Neither Bacon nor Napoleon seems to have counted the products of the sea, the mine, or the forest as essential to a country's prosperity. Whether essential or not, all three enter very largely into the industrial prosperity of Canada. The fisheries furnish one of the staple industries of the Maritime Provinces of the Dominion—that is to say, the Atlantic provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and portions of Quebec and the Pacific province of British Columbia. They also add materially to the wealth of Ontario, which it will be remembered has an extensive coast-line on every one of the great lakes except Michigan, and draws therefrom, as well as from her numerous small lakes and rivers, annually a rich tribute. The cod fisheries of the Atlantic coast and the salmon of British Columbia furnish the chief sources of revenue, but herring, haddock, pickerel, and other deep-sea and in-shore fish, as well as many fresh-water fish, add to the sum total. One must also take into account the lobster fisheries of the Atlantic coast, the oysters of Prince Edward Island, the whale fisheries of Hudson's Bay, and the seal industry of the Northern Pacific. The latter, perhaps, should rather be considered as part of the fur trade than of the fisheries. One hundred thousand men are employed in connexion with the fisheries of Canada—a splendid body of men, sturdy, fearless, self-reliant, forming one of the industrial pillars of Canada, and furnishing at the same time material for an unequalled naval reserve for the Imperial Navy.

Canada ranks third as a gold-producing country. The production of gold in Canada in 1903 was valued at $18,834,490, while the production in 1900, the largest on record, was valued at $27,908,153. Gold had been profitably mined in Nova Scotia years before it was heard of in the Yukon; later it was found in British Columbia, with still more extensive silver deposits; and

finally an adventurous pioneer discovered that the Yukon and its tributary creeks were freighted with the precious metal. The Sudbury mines, in Northern Ontario, produce practically the only nickel known to exist outside of New Caledonia. Over ten and a half million pounds of nickel matter were produced at the Sudbury mines in 1902, valued at $5,000,000. About a third of this was exported to the United States, and 438,000 pounds to Great Britain. Copper, mica, asbestos and many other minerals are found in different parts of Canada.

The deposits of iron ore already discovered in different parts of the Dominion are sufficient to supply the world's markets for centuries to come, even though every other source of supply were cut off. The same thing may be said of coal. Cape Breton coal is being exported every year in increasing quantities to European markets, and the supply is practically inexhaustible. The mines of Cape Breton are capable of supplying the steamships of the world with coal for a century. But these deposits sink almost into insignificance beside the enormous coal lands at Fernie in the Rocky Mountains, on the Crow's Nest branch of the Canadian Pacific Railway. There are 250,000 acres of coal lands here, estimated to contain 20,000,000,000 tons of bituminous coal. On Vancouver Island there are also large deposits along the coast, where the coal can be economically put on board vessels from the pit's mouth. Both coal and iron have recently been discovered in Northern Ontario, and companies are being formed for their development.

Of the total area of the Dominion, a million and a quarter square miles consist of forest and woodland. Lumbering has formed one of the staple industries of Eastern Canada for many years past, and a very considerable proportion of the lumber taken out has been pine; yet an approximate estimate of the quantity of pine still remaining in the forests of Canada gives a total of 37,500,000,000 feet board measure, the forest area of British Columbia containing about 75 per cent. of the

whole. The white pine is supplied principally by Ontario and Quebec. In British Columbia the gigantic Douglas fir, which sometimes reaches a height of three hundred feet, with a base circumference of thirty to fifty feet, furnishes one of the chief sources of provincial revenue. The yellow and red cedar—the latter used largely for shingles—the white spruce, hemlock, tamarac, etc., add to the available supply of good timber. British Columbia had one hundred and sixteen lumber and shingle mills in operation last year, whose output amounted to 232 million feet of lumber, and 200 million shingles. Despite the number of mills in operation, the supply of timber seems to be practically inexhaustible, the extreme density of the forest—an acre of which sometimes yields half a million feet of timber—rendering the deforestation slow. The market for British Columbia lumber is extending rapidly in every direction, vessels carrying the sawn product to Great Britain, Australia, South Africa, South America, China and Japan, the United States and Mexico. What has been said about the extent and value of the forest wealth of British Columbia applies in only slightly lesser degree to the forests of Eastern Canada. The total exports of forest products were valued in 1903 at $36,000,000. Great Britain is Canada's best customer in this, as in most of her exported products.

One of the most important branches of the lumbering industry of the Dominion is that of wood-pulp, or pulp-wood, the latter being, of course, the raw material and the former the manufactured product, so far as the wood is concerned. The demand for pulp-wood is increasing at an enormous rate, and at the same time the world's supply, outside of Canada, is rapidly diminishing. Canada possesses vast forests of spruce, poplar, and other woods adapted to this purpose, and is destined to become, before many years, the chief source of supply for the paper markets of Europe and America. Pulp and paper mills are springing up rapidly all over Eastern Canada, at Sault Ste Marie, at Chicoutimi in the province of Quebec,

on the St. John river in New Brunswick, and many other places. An estimate that has lately been prepared of the standing timber in Quebec places the quantity of spruce suitable for pulp, in that province alone, at an amount equal to the production of two billion tons of paper pulp.

Returning, then, to Napoleon's dictum, it will probably be conceded that the first requisite laid down for the material prosperity of a nation is fulfilled in the case of Canada. Canada has what Napoleon considered the soul of a nation. Let us see whether she possesses the brains—manufactures.

Canada is primarily, and probably always will be, an agricultural nation; but this does not by any means imply that she lacks manufactures. As a matter of fact, the Dominion manufactures nearly all the lines of goods made in the United States, and it is only a question of time before she will be quite independent of the Republic, and will be able not only to entirely supply the home market, but enter into active competition with her great neighbour in the markets of the world.

The last Dominion census revealed the curious fact that Canada is just about ten years behind the United States in the industrial distribution of her people. Thus, in every 10,000 people there were 1521 devoted to agriculture in Canada in 1890, and 1529 in the United States in 1880. In industry (manufactures) and mines, Canada stood 766 in 1890, and the United States 791 in 1880. In trade and transportation the respective figures were: Canada, 386; the United States, 360.

The chief mercantile and industrial centres of the Dominion are Montreal and Toronto. Ontario occupies the leading position among the provinces of the Dominion as regards the variety and extent of its manufactures. A large proportion of the requirements of its population in the staple lines of clothing, boots and shoes, furniture, hardware, tools, machinery, etc., is supplied by home industry, and a surplus is already left for export.

As already stated, one of the chief industries of the province—or, rather, a group of industries—is that established at Sault Ste Marie by what was generally known as the Clergue Syndicate. This great corporation, capitalised originally at over 100 million dollars, has recently been reorganised under a more conservative management. The capital invested is almost entirely American, and the industries include an immense power canal with a capacity of 20,000 horse-power, pulp mills, iron works, locomotive and car shops, Bessemer steel works and rail mill, ferro-nickel works, chemical works, etc. The company own their own iron and nickel mines and their own steamers, and are constructing a line of railway north from Sault Ste Marie, to tap the timber and mining lands of the far north. The steel-rail mills are now in full operation, and the company expects to turn out a large proportion of the rails required for the new trans-continental railway.

At Sydney, Cape Breton, another extensive steel plant is in operation, the iron ore for which is brought from a remarkable deposit on a small island off the coast of Newfoundland—a mass aggregating many millions of tons of pure ore, requiring nothing more than to be loaded on to tram-cars and run down to the shore, where it is loaded on barges and shipped to the works at Sydney.

Besides these two large plants, there are a number of others, chiefly in Ontario and Quebec, the aggregate capacity of which, with those already mentioned, amounts to about two million tons. The Dominion Government gives a bounty on both steel ingots and pig iron made in Canada, and the Ontario Government also grants a bounty on iron made in the province.

Montreal is the chief Canadian centre for the manufacture of staple goods. There is a large investment of capital in the manufacture of metal goods. The two chief Canadian railroads—the Canadian Pacific and the Grand Trunk—both have extensive workshops in Montreal.

Several large steam-engine works are also located here, as well as a number of general machine shops, electrical machine works, and other similar industries. Montreal also contains rolling mills, nail factories, axe, scythe, and saw works, tin works, brass and iron foundries, bridge works, and structural material works. The city also holds a prominent place in the manufacture of textiles, practically controlling the Canadian production of cotton. There are four cotton mills in the city, one company alone employing eighteen hundred hands.

In most of her leading industries, Canada is indebted to the United States for a large proportion of the capital invested. More capital has come into Canada from the United States within the last five years than in the previous quarter of a century. British capital is still inclined to prefer doubtful experiments in South American securities, or wild-cat schemes the world over, to safe and profitable investments in England's greatest colonial possession. However, British capital is beginning to turn slowly towards Canada, and in time it may be realised that in this case at least sentimental and imperial considerations may be combined with purely business principles, and the British investor at one and the same time strengthen the ties of Empire, build up Canada with British rather than American capital, and still reap a sure and substantial profit from his investment. Population and capital are the two things now needed to fully realise the splendid possibilities of Canada's golden future. The political attitude of the Canada of ten or twenty years hence will depend very largely upon the character of the immigration and the capital that serve to build up the country in the interval. If the present preponderating stream of American settlers and American capital continues, there is more than a possibility that the present strong sentiment of the Dominion towards British connexion will gradually give way to a feeling of Pan-Americanism; while, on the other hand, if the American invasion of men and money is overwhelmed by a still

TADOUSSAC, LOWER ST. LAWRENCE.

larger influx of British emigrants and British capital, there will be built up in North America a branch of the British Empire, strong and willing to stand by the mother country in forwarding the best interests of the common nation.

Glancing broadly over the Dominion from the industrial point of view, it will be seen that while agriculture is common to all the provinces and territories, Manitoba and the North-West stand first as raisers of wheat and other cereals; Ontario is gradually replacing wheat by mixed farming, and the other provinces raise not more than enough for their own consumption; the Maritime Provinces and British Columbia draw a large proportion of their revenue from their respective fisheries; Nova Scotia and British Columbia stand first as producers of minerals; in timber British Columbia and the northern districts of Ontario and Quebec hold the pre-eminence; Alberta is the seat of the ranching industry, and Ontario cattlemen are also devoting their energies to the breeding of choice cattle; the chief coal deposits are found in Nova Scotia and British Columbia, at either end of the broad Dominion; manufactures are pretty well confined to Ontario and Quebec, where the enormous water-powers of the provinces are beginning to be utilised. This is especially the case at Niagara, where three large companies have been granted franchises on the Canadian side of the river, and are now actively at work. The Canadian Niagara Power Company will develop 100,000 horse-power, the Ontario Power Company 150,000, and the Toronto and Niagara Company 125,000. A large proportion of the total capital invested in these enterprises —$12,000,000—is Canadian, the rest coming from the United States.

Coming now to the third of Napoleon's requisites for industrial strength—transportation, or the limbs of a nation —it is patent to any one who has studied the map of Canada that transportation is absolutely vital in the case of this country. No country stretching for several thousand miles east and west could ever hope to achieve greatness

without adequate transportation facilities. Canada, fortunately, was already endowed with great natural advantages, in the splendid lake and river system which stretches halfway across the continent, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the head of Lake Superior. This natural inland waterway is the most extensive in the world. It runs for 2384 miles, or equal to the distance from Liverpool to New York. The Dominion Government has expended millions of dollars for many years past in digging and enlarging a series of canals, so that vessels may ascend and descend from the head of Lake Superior to the sea without breaking bulk. The St. Lawrence river has also been dredged between Quebec and Montreal, and an efficient system of lighthouses, buoys, and beacons established throughout all the inland and coast waters of the Dominion. Canada has expended altogether upon her system of canals between 80 and 90 million dollars, and upon all her public works, including canals, government buildings, wharves, docks, lighthouses, and other improvements to navigation, as well as subsidies to railways in different parts of the Dominion, something over 313 million dollars.

There are 19,000 miles of railway in the country, representing a capital of over $1,000,000,000; and 32,000 miles of telegraph wires—more than in Italy, Spain, Turkey, and Australia combined. The largest of the Canadian railway companies, the Canadian Pacific Railway, has in its service over 29,000 employees. The existing transcontinental railway of Canada, the Canadian Pacific Railway, provides a shorter route from Europe to Asia than any of the American routes; and when the Grand Trunk Pacific is completed, from Moncton to Port Simpson on the Pacific, the distance will be still further reduced. This fact is of much more than Canadian importance. It is a vital element in the great problem of defending the British Empire. A year or two ago the British Government made inquiries as to the carrying capacity of the Canadian Pacific Railway, with a view to

THRESHING WHEAT IN WESTERN CANADA.

utilising the Canadian route in time of war. The company replied that they were prepared to handle five thousand troops a day, and to carry them across the continent in one hundred hours. When the new transcontinental road is completed, a few years hence, England can count on at least double this capacity, a fact which might conceivably have a very vital bearing upon a war situation in the Far East.

It is only a question of time, too, when the manifest advantages of opening up the Hudson's Bay route will press themselves upon the attention of the public men and capitalists of Canada. There are already a dozen or more railways projected towards Hudson's Bay, from points in the North-West, Manitoba, and Ontario, and a charter has also been granted for a road from Port Simpson direct to Fort Churchill on the Bay, where an excellent harbour exists. If this should become an accomplished fact, and a line of powerful steamers were established on the route from Fort Churchill to Liverpool, all the existing routes from Europe to the Far East would be left far behind. This route, too, would enable Canada to land grain in Liverpool a couple of days before the same grain could be shipped *viâ* New York, and she could thus capture the entire grain trade of the West—American as well as Canadian. Even as it is, the Canadian route *viâ* Montreal is steadily taking the grain shipments from Boston and New York, in spite of the desperate efforts of American shippers and transportation companies to stem the tide, and Montreal is rapidly becoming the chief shipping port for continental wheat, at the same time that Winnipeg has captured from her American rivals, Chicago and Duluth, the first place in the handling of wheat, a comparison of the total receipts at Winnipeg during 1902 showing that the Canadian city handled 14 million bushels more than Chicago, and that Winnipeg's new record has never yet been equalled by either Chicago or Duluth. The figures for 1903 and 1904 are equally gratifying.

CHAPTER V

THE MILITIA

CANADA has always had a Militia, of one sort or another, under both French and British rule, its earliest beginnings dating back to the first half of the seventeenth century. Sometimes it has been efficient, sometimes inefficient—especially from a 'Regular' point of view; but it is a matter of history that, before as well as since the conquest, the Canadian Militia has acquitted itself with credit in the face of the enemy, and has taken a lion's share in the defence of the country. It is important to emphasise this, as there has been a somewhat general tendency to assume, both at home and abroad, that the Regulars, French or English as the case might be, were entitled to most if not all the credit of defending the colony in peace and war.

M. Benjamin Sulte, the eminent French-Canadian historian, has laid stress on the preponderating influence of the Militia over the Regulars in the military history of the country, and the records of the early conflicts with the Iroquois, with the New England Colonists, and with the British troops at the time of the Conquest furnish conclusive evidence on this point.* Subsequent to the Conquest, the record is the same. The Canadian Militia,

* 'La milice . . . s'est couverte de gloire durant cette guerre de sept ans qui se termina, le 18 Septembre, 1760, par la capitulation de Montreal.'—Benjamin Sulte, 'Histoire de la Milice Canadienne-Française.'

both French and English, took an active part in repulsing the American invasion of 1775–76 under Montgomery and Arnold; in meeting and repelling attacks from the same quarter in the war of 1812; in suppressing the Rebellion of 1837; the Fenian Raids, and the two Rebellions in the North-West.

Like Mr. Kipling's 'Tommy Atkins,' the Canadian militiaman has not always been appreciated by the taxpayer. In times of national danger he was hastily organised and sent to the frontier; but when the crisis was past, the force was either disbanded or greatly reduced. This, however, was only in the early days. In later years the importance of the Militia has been more and more recognised; it has become a permanent institution, and increased in efficiency and effectiveness year by year. How much of this was the outcome of public appreciation is a matter of doubt. Some of it was unquestionably the result of the gradual withdrawal of Imperial troops from Canada, and the consequent throwing of the burden of home defence upon Canadian shoulders. The Militia Law of 1855 marked the opening of a new era in the military history of the country. It provided for the enrolment and maintenance of an active Militia, whose training and other expenses were to be paid for out of the public revenues.

The new force, in the words of the late Adjutant-General of Canada, Colonel Walker Powell, was 'required to follow on the same general lines as applied in Great Britain to its home forces, with such modifications as would adapt the regulations which were to govern the Canadian active force to the circumstances of the population and country. The active Militia corps to be raised by Canada for its own service were to act as auxiliaries in the event of war or invasion from a foreign State; they were to buy their own uniform and clothing; and to receive pay during peace for a specified number of days' drill each year—say six dollars per man per annum for infantry, and a larger sum to those of other arms who

required horses. The total strength of all corps to be so paid was not to exceed 5000, but an additional number of corps in Class B were authorised, who were to provide drill without pay, and were to receive arms and accoutrements as a free issue on loan from the Government. The active force raised under the authority of the new law was amenable to the same discipline on service, at drill, and when in uniform, as the Imperial regular troops.'

The combined strength of the two classes, which in 1856 was 5000 men, had increased by 1861 to nearly 12,000. The system adopted in 1855 formed the basis, with certain modifications and additions necessitated by changed conditions, of all that has since taken place. In 1863 the strength of the Militia was increased to 25,000 men, which was maintained up to the time of Confederation.

In 1868 a new Militia Act was submitted to Parliament by the first Minister of Militia of the Dominion, Sir George E. Cartier. Under this Act, to quote once more from Colonel Powell, 'the Governor-General ceased to exercise the active duties of Commander-in-Chief of the Militia. The command was vested in her Majesty, and was to be administered in her absence by the Governor-General during peace (or when the active Militia acted as auxiliaries to regular troops of Great Britain), under advice from his Council. The immediate military command was to be exercised by a military officer, subject to the supervision and approval of the Minister of Militia, who was to be responsible for the expenditures.'

The military development which now took place in raising the strength of the active Militia to 40,000, and in founding the Dominion Rifle Association in 1868, did not imply that there were large numbers of trained Militia soldiers and extensive military works and fortifications; but it showed that the germ of military knowledge had been planted; that the military training of the Militia had produced a considerable number of men who, having

passed through the commands and ranks of the active Militia, were being strengthened by discharged soldiers from the Imperial regular army who had settled in the country; and that this advancement had imparted such a knowledge to the reserves as added to their qualifications for service, while making them more self-reliant and capable for duty.

In 1869 the Imperial Government notified Canada of its intention to begin the gradual withdrawal of the regular forces from the country, and 3592, out of a total of 13,185, were withdrawn in that year. In 1871 the forts and works in the Dominion, outside of Halifax, were handed over to Canada and the regular troops withdrawn, with the exception of the Halifax garrison. The forts at Quebec and other places, formerly garrisoned by British troops, were now manned by a force raised and paid by Canada.

Schools of military instruction were established in 1871 for officers, non-commissioned officers, and men, in the several branches of the service, and these were added to in 1883. The establishments of these schools, known as the Royal Canadian Artillery, the Royal Canadian Dragoons, and the Royal Regiment of Canadian Infantry, formed the nucleus of a small Canadian standing army—one that, through its leavening influence upon the active Militia, fulfilled all essential requirements of a colonial regular force.

In 1876 the Royal Military College at Kingston was established by the Mackenzie Government for the training of cadets in the higher branches of military knowledge, as well as in allied subjects. This college, under an efficient staff of instructors, has turned out, during the intervening years, a large number of young men, who have entered the engineering and other professions, and have to a large extent become officers of the active Militia, thus carrying their special knowledge to every quarter of the wide Dominion. A number of these young cadets have also entered the British Army (Brigadier-

General Leader, Colonel Lang, C.M.G., Colonel Skinner, Captain Stairs, of African fame, and Sir Percy Girouard being notable examples), where they have done equal credit to Canada and to the Royal Military College.

The Militia of Canada is nominally divided into two sections—the active and sedentary, the former consisting of, approximately, 40,000 men, raised by purely voluntary enrolment, and the latter consisting, theoretically, of every able-bodied man in the country. Under the constitution every able-bodied Canadian, with a few exceptions, is liable for military service; but the law is to all intents and purposes a dead letter. The real military force of the country is the active Militia.

The permanent force, or Schools of Instruction, consists altogether of two thousand men. Enrolment is voluntary, the men joining for three years' service, and being clothed, fed, housed, and paid by the Dominion Government. Recruits may obtain their discharge within three months on payment of thirty dollars, or afterwards on payment of two dollars per month of the unexpired portion of their engagement. This enables them to take advantage of opportunities for employment outside the force.

Officers, non-commissioned officers, and men of the active Militia are attached to these schools from time to time for instruction. The courses are divided into what are called 'Short Course,' 'Special Course,' and 'Long Course.' The first lasts three months, and is restricted to ten officers and twenty non-commissioned officers and men at each school. A Special Course is for officers only, after attendance of not less than seven days at a Permanent School. The Long Course, for Cavalry and Infantry, lasts six months, and for the Artillery nine months. Three months of this period for officers is spent at Kingston, attending lectures at the Royal Military College in Elementary Surveying, Tactics, Military Engineering, and Reconnaissance. The Short and Long courses are open to all ranks of the Militia.

The report of the Minister of Militia (Sir Frederick Borden) for 1903 contains a comparative statement of military expenditure in Canada during the last decade, from which it appears that the total expenditure, which in 1893 amounted to a million and a quarter dollars, is now nearly three millions. In 1899 it was over three and a half millions, but this included one and a half millions for the South African contingents. Altogether Canada spent two million dollars on the several South African contingents, which, of course, does not include the cost of Strathcona's Horse, defrayed by Lord Strathcona personally. Of the three millions expended in 1901–2 on all military services, $254,000 went for the provisional garrison at Halifax—equipped and paid by the Dominion Government—to relieve the regular forces stationed there for service in South Africa. Of the remainder, $122,000 represented Canada's share in the defences of Esquimalt; $270,000 was for the pay of the permanent force; $529,000 for the annual drill of the Militia; $81,000 for the Royal Military College; and $207,000 for the Dominion arsenal. The rest is distributed among the pay of the Headquarters Staff, cost of clothing, provisions, etc., for the permanent force, arms and ammunition for the Militia, grants to rifle associations, etc. A small sum, altogether about $21,000, was paid in pensions to veterans of the Rebellion of 1837–38, of the Fenian Raid, and of the North-West Rebellion of 1885.

During the session of 1903, the Minister of Militia presented to Parliament a Bill providing for a large increase in the strength and efficiency of the Militia. This important scheme was the outcome of long deliberations on the part of the Headquarters Staff, and especially of the late Major-General commanding the Militia, Lord Dundonald, in conjunction with the Minister. The first authoritative statement as to its character and scope, with the exception of Sir Frederick Borden's brief explanation in the House of Commons, was made on October 26,

1903, by Lord Dundonald, in an address before the Canadian Club of Ottawa, on 'The Citizen and his Military Obligations.' This address throws so much light upon the subject, that it will be desirable to quote from it at some length :—

'First and most important of all,' said Lord Dundonald, 'there is to be a First Line of Defence of one hundred thousand men. It is not proposed to enrol and train all this force in the same way that the present Militia is enrolled and trained. It is considered that the country cannot afford the cost of training such numbers to a like state of efficiency. The system on which it is to be managed is what may be called a skeleton one. That is to say, the officers, non-commissioned officers, and part of the privates of every regiment, battalion, and battery will be enrolled and trained as at present for peace and war service. The remainder of the strength of all these units will be made up of men who undertake to turn out in time of war only, and to do as much training as they can manage without interfering with their business in time of peace.

'More especially they are to undertake to become good rifle-shots, for it is too late to learn rifle-shooting when it is time to go into the field. Arms, equipment, clothing, and everything necessary for their efficiency in the field will be provided, so that in time of need all that they have to do is to assemble at their headquarters, put on their service kit, and fall in with their companies.

'It may be asked whether these men, with so little training, can possibly be efficient soldiers. No, they cannot, if they stand alone. They would be a mere mob, however brave they might be individually. But it was found in South Africa, and it was no new story, that quite raw troops can be made into good and steady soldiers in a wonderfully short time, if they have good and experienced leaders, and a certain number of trained men in the ranks to steady them and enable them to learn their work by constant example. We propose to

make use of these facts in organising the army of one hundred thousand men who are to form the First Line of Defence for Canada.

'It is clear that if the outlined scheme is to work well, everything will depend on the leaders and the quality of the skeletons of the different units. The responsibility of the leaders and the work of the skeleton framework will be heavier than in the case of fully trained troops. They must, therefore, be thoroughly educated in the art of war, and they must be carefully selected men.

'Accordingly a new system of training for officers and non-commissioned officers has been arranged which will secure the necessary efficiency. There will be examinations, with simplified courses of instruction, at the new central camp of instruction, which is to be a prominent feature in the scheme. As the Minister of Militia explained lately in Parliament, a large area of ground is to be obtained at some convenient and central point, where a permanent camp will be established for the training of troops of all arms in modern conditions of war. At this camp as many as possible of the officers and non-commissioned officers of the First Line will be specially trained by the best instructors in the Dominion. They will be able to see and practice operations which have been up to the present time impossible for them. They will gain ideas and capacity in the art of war which they in turn will be able to pass on to the militia of the regiments and districts from whence they came. If the colonel and senior officers of a regiment only know what war is, what precautions to take, and how to lead their men, that regiment will be saved from disaster in war, and in a short time military knowledge will be diffused through all ranks sufficient for practical purposes.

'The most important part of the training of the rank and file will be in the use of the rifle. They are not compelled to be efficient in drill, but they must be good shots. For this purpose they will be supplied with a liberal allowance of ammunition free, and everything is

to be done to provide them with convenient rifle ranges where these do not already exist.

'Such is to be the constitution and training of the First Line of Defence. Behind this First Line there is to be a Second Line. Every regiment will have a third to command; every company, squadron, and battery will have attached to it an officer and two non-commissioned officers supernumerary to the strength. They will not have any obligatory responsibilities in time of peace beyond coming out for training with the First Line units to which they are attached, and enrolling volunteers for the Second Line, but it is very possible that enthusiasm may cause the Second Line to put in an actual appearance on parade on occasions with or without military uniforms. In case of war the nucleus of the Second Line will stay behind at headquarters, and will set about completing the organisation and training of the fresh companies, squadrons, and so on, which will have been already enrolled. By this means it should be possible, very shortly after the mobilisation of the First Line, to supplement it with a Second Line of almost equal strength.

'We have now the clear and definite lines laid down,' concluded Lord Dundonald, 'of a great citizen army. Nearly all the organisations and departments that will render that force efficient in the field are in process of rapid development. An efficient intelligence department and military survey of Canada are being organised. Facilities for efficient training are to be given. Still, there are important links still wanting which money, and money only, can supply, in order to place the Militia in a thoroughly efficient condition, efficient in every detail, thoroughly supplied with all the necessaries of war, and utilising to the best possible advantage the splendid fighting material of the Dominion.'

Lord Dundonald made an eloquent appeal for public support of the new Militia scheme—an appeal to which the patriotism of the Canadian people will not be slow to respond.

In June, 1904, friction arose between Lord Dundonald and the Militia authorities over interference with the granting of commissions in the Militia. At a public dinner, in Montreal, the general accused the Government of introducing politics into the Militia, and uttered a strong protest against such a course. The matter came up in Parliament, and though some evidence was produced to justify Lord Dundonald's statement, he was adjudged guilty of insubordination in making the speech, and was dismissed from his office. Subsequently, during the same session, a Militia Bill was passed providing for the administration of the Militia by a Council. On November 25 of the same year, this Council was gazetted, consisting of Sir Frederick Borden, Minister of Militia and Defence; Colonel Pinault, C.M.G., Deputy Minister; Mr. J. W. Borden, Accountant of the Militia Department; Brigadier-General Lord Aylmer, Inspector-General; Brigadier-General P. H. N. Lake, C.B., Chief of Staff; Colonel B. H. Vidal, Adjutant-General; Colonel W. H. Cotton, Master-General of Ordnance; Colonel D. A. Macdonald, I.S.O., Quartermaster-General. This Council will administer the affairs of the Militia, both civil and military branches, and its decisions will be carried into effect under the supervision of the Inspector-General and Chief of Staff. The latter is a British Army officer, and his capacity is advisory, with a view to securing a certain degree of uniformity in training the Canadian forces with the system adopted for the British Army. In its salient feature the system of administration is intended to follow that of the British Army Council.

In addition to this Militia army of 100,000 men, a scheme for the enrolment of a large force of mounted infantry has been proposed by Captain Morrison, D.S.O., of Ottawa, and will probably be adopted when the organisation of the main army has been completed. Captain Morrison made a study of the Boer Commando system when in South Africa, and has suggested its adoption in Canada. There are over 600,000 young

farmers and ranchmen, and it is proposed that they be enrolled under their local authorities in the same manner in which the Boers mobilise under their field-cornets and commandants—each county being required to furnish its quota. Each township councillor would be responsible for a certain number of mounted men, to whom arms would be issued by the Government, the men to furnish their own horses and saddles. The force would not be drilled, but would be required to mobilise once a year, probably on Dominion Day, for inspection and to check the enrolment. Inducement would be offered for enrolment in the shape of a remission of labour tax, as is done in the case of the active Militia, and the men allowed a day's pay for themselves and horses, as is done in connexion with the transport mobilisation. On the day decided upon for the mobilisation of this mounted force, the general officer commanding would send out a general order to the wardens of counties, who would notify the reeves of their townships, who in turn would have the councillors notify their quotas of men. These would report on the day of mobilisation at their local headquarters and march to the township headquarters, and from there to the county rendezvous. It is estimated that a total force of at least 200,000 mounted men could be got together in this way. They would be encouraged to practise rifle-shooting, and, as every young Canadian in the country districts can shoot and ride, they would form the raw material for a very efficient irregular army in case of a mobilisation *en masse*, which in the hands of competent officers who could be detailed from the reserve of officers would prove a potential factor in the scheme of defence, and should be able to do as good or better work than the now famous Boer commandoes. Of course this force would be merely auxiliary to the trained and organised army which is now taking shape under Lord Dundonald's administration. The comparatively small cost involved, the large number of men it would bring into touch with the military authorities, and the facility

of mobilisation would render it peculiarly valuable in case of war.

It should be added that in addition to the Dominion Rifle Association, which meets annually at Ottawa, and sends a picked team of marksmen to Bisley each year, provincial and other rifle associations exist in every province. In 1904, Private S. J. Perry, of the Duke of Connaught's Own Rifles, of Vancouver, won the King's Prize at Bisley.

Since the withdrawal of the regular forces from old Canada, in the early 'seventies, the Dominion has had to depend entirely on her Militia for defence and the preservation of peace within her borders, and the force has a commendable record on service. In 1866 it was called up to repel a Fenian invasion on the Niagara frontier, which involved considerable fighting, and subsequently it supplied a provisional force to guard the provinces. In 1870 provisional battalions under Sir Garnet (now Lord) Wolseley took part in the suppression of the Red River Rebellion, and in the same year the force repelled another Fenian raid on the Quebec frontier. In 1885 the North-West Rebellion broke out, and about 5000 militia successfully suppressed it. When war was declared in South Africa, Canada sent a regiment of infantry, which distinguished itself under Colonel Otter, C.B., at Paardeburg and throughout the Pretoria campaign; also a brigade of field artillery under Colonel Drury, C.B., the batteries of which saw service at Mafeking, Belfast, Lydenburg, and in the western part of Cape Colony. The Royal Canadian Dragoons and 1st and 2nd Mounted Rifles fought in numerous severe actions, including the march on Pretoria, Diamond Hill, Belfast, Hart's River, etc.; while Strathcona's Horse* distinguished itself with General Buller's army. Just before the war closed the 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th regiments of Mounted Infantry

* An independent corps of 1000 men, raised in Western Canada, and maintained entirely at his own expense, by the patriotic nobleman whose name it bore. Col. S. B. Steele, C.B., commanded it.

were sent out, but only arrived when peace was declared. About 8000 men in all went to South Africa, and the losses they sustained, as well as the honours granted to individual officers and men, bore eloquent testimony to the value of their services to the Empire.

No sketch of the military or defensive forces of Canada would be complete without mention of that very efficient body known as the Royal North-West Mounted Police, the bright conception of the late Sir John Macdonald, while Prime Minister. It is not too much to say that the history of the Canadian North-West might have been very different but for the influence exerted, especially in the early days, by the Mounted Police. Their control of the Indians and the lawless element among the whites is more remarkable when it is remembered that the entire force never at any time exceeded a thousand men, and has generally been considerably below that number, and that it has had to patrol the entire West, from Winnipeg to the Rockies, and even to the Pacific, and from the International Boundary to the Arctic. At the present time there is not only a comparatively strong detachment in the Yukon, but also a post stationed on an island in the Arctic Ocean, north of the mouth of the Mackenzie river—by all odds the farthest outpost of civilisation North. Another small detachment was sent in 1903 to the north-western coast of Hudson's Bay. Both these Arctic posts are designed to watch the sealers, maintain law and order, and protect the interests of the Dominion.

Pages might be filled with anecdotes illustrating the bravery and effectiveness of the Mounted Police throughout the North-West; how single troopers would ride into the midst of a tribe of hostile Indians and arrest one who was wanted for murder or some other crime—the Indians not daring to interfere; how a mounted policeman would intercept a party of smugglers from over the border, bringing in forbidden whisky for the Indians, and compel them to empty the precious stuff

over the prairie; how others would hold in check the lawless bands of American desperadoes that wandered occasionally across the boundary.

The source of the influence of the Mounted Police with the Indians is not hard to seek. From the very beginning the policy of the Police, and of the Dominion Government behind them, has been to keep absolute good faith with the Indians, to fulfil to the letter every treaty obligation, and at the same time to suppress immediately any attempt at lawlessness. In this way the Mounted Police came to stand, in the eyes of the Western tribes, for the justice as well as the power of the white man. Never breaking faith with the Indians, but following with the relentlessness of Fate upon the trail of a criminal, this handful of police have maintained throughout the immense territory of the Canadian North-West such tranquillity and respect for law as have never at any time existed in the Western American States, though the latter are patrolled by an immensely superior force. It should be added that much of the success and efficiency of this model corps is due to the wise and careful administration of its present Comptroller, Lieut.-Col. Frederick White, C.M.G.

CHAPTER VI

THE INDIANS

THERE are about one hundred thousand Indians now remaining in Canada, scattered from one end of the Dominion to the other—from Cape Breton to the Yukon. Considerably over a third of the entire number are found in Manitoba and the North-West Territories; British Columbia is credited with twenty-five thousand, and Ontario with nearly twenty thousand; the rest are in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces.

Parkman divided the Indians east of the Mississippi into three great families: The Iroquois, the Algonquin, and the Mobilian, each speaking a language of its own, varied by numerous dialectic forms. We are only concerned here with two of these families, the Mobilian belonging entirely to the southern portion of the continent. Rev. Dr. Maclean, an authority on the subject, divides the tribes of the Canadian West into the Blackfoot confederacy, consisting of the Bloods, Piegans, and Blackfeet; the Siouan confederacy, embracing the Stoney or Assiniboine and the branches of Sioux tribes scattered through the country; the Cree confederacy, including the Plain Crees, the Wood Crees, and the Muskegon or Swampy Crees; and the Ojibiway confederacy. This division leaves out of account the tribes of the far North, and those of British Columbia. Dr. Bryce, of Winnipeg, gives a more comprehensive classification of the Indians of the West, viz. 1. Algonquin; 2. Dakotas

AN INDIAN PICNIC IN MANITOBA.

or Sioux; 3. Chippewayans or Athabascans; 4. Indians of British Columbia; 5. Eskimos.

The great Algonquin family, it will thus be seen, forms the connecting link between East and West. The early branches of the Algonquin stock, those tribes which first came in contact with English colonists and French explorers, have almost entirely passed away, only a few degenerate Micmacs, Melicetes, and Abenaquis remaining in the Canadian Atlantic provinces. In the West the race has been more fortunate, a strong branch of the Algonquin family, the Ojibiways or Chippewas, living along the north shore of the St. Lawrence, and westward as far as Lake Superior. The Ojibiways have always been a hardy and courageous tribe, and were about the only ones that managed to keep in check the ferocious and all-conquering Iroquois. Both the Crees and Blackfoot, which Dr. Maclean treats as distinct confederacies, are correctly described by Dr. Bryce as offshoots of the original Algonquin stock, or rather of that branch of it known as the Ojibiways.

The Dakotas or Sioux, on the other hand, are quite distinct in language and habits from the Algonquin tribes. They were known to the early French explorers as 'the little Iroquois of the West,' from their physical resemblance to the Iroquois, and a similar fierceness of disposition. 'Their language,' says Dr. Bryce, 'is somewhat like that of the Iroquois, and their lithe figures, aquiline noses, and intellectual features mark them as handsome Indians.' It has been surmised that the Iroquois and the Sioux are but different branches of a warlike people, who, coming up the Mississippi on their line of conquest, divided at the mouth of the Ohio river, the one part going to the north-east, and the other part northward to the 'land of the Dakotas,' westward of the great lakes.

Mr. J. W. Powell, director of the United States Bureau of Ethnology, prepared in 1886 a valuable map, showing the linguistic stocks of American Indians north of Mexico.

By this map it appears that the Algonquian family covers an enormous stretch of territory, from Nova Scotia in the east to the Rocky Mountains, and north through the Labrador peninsula, and up to 60 degrees on the west side of Hudson's Bay. The Iroquoian stock is confined to a comparatively small district, stretching from about the city of Quebec, up the St. Lawrence and on both sides to Lake Ontario, then spreading out and embracing Southern Ontario, New York, and parts of Pennsylvania and Ohio. Another branch of the same stock covered portions of Virginia and the Carolinas. This was the home of the Tuscoraras, a tribe belonging to the Iroquoian stock, and which, driven out of North Carolina, joined the Iroquois confederacy, which thereafter changed its name from the Five Nations to the Six Nations.

In the west, the Siouan family covers only a small portion of Canadian territory, in Assiniboia, but extends south of the International Boundary, in a broad band, almost to the Gulf of Mexico. The Athabascan stock extends from the northerly limit of the Algonquins, throughout the Mackenzie river district, the northern half of British Columbia, the Yukon country, and Alaska. The Eskimauan family are confined chiefly to the Arctic coast, following it from Behring Sea to Hudson's Bay, and then around the Labrador coast as far as Newfoundland. The Pacific coast, both British and American, shows a perfect medley of linguistic stocks—Chimmesyan, Wakashan, Shahaptian, Salishan, Kitunahan, and a score and more of others.

As to the origin of the entire race of American Indians, theories are almost as numerous as the scholars who have made a specialty of this fascinating subject. On this point there is little agreement among Canadian, American, English, or French historians. Every facial or other physical characteristic, the languages of the different tribes, their geographical distribution, their manners and customs, —all have been dragged into court, to support the pet theory of one enthusiast, who is convinced that the

Indian's nose proves him to be descended from the lost tribes of Israel; or of another, who discovers the unquestionable Celtic eye, transplanted in America Heaven knows when; or a third, or fourth, or fifth, or sixth learned ethnologist, who proves beyond peradventure that the unhappy Redman should trace his lineage back to Tartary, Japan, Scandinavia, or Australasia. A Canadian annalist labels the Indians as 'possible descendants of migrating Tartars from the steppes of Central Asia.' Dr. James Hannay, the Canadian historian, also favours the Asiatic theory. In his 'History of Acadia' he expresses the belief that America was populated by immigrants who reached the continent by way of Behring Straits or the Aleutian Islands, which form a convenient series of stepping-stones from Asia to America. Some fragments of the religions and arts of India or other portions of Southern Asia were, in Dr. Hannay's opinion, brought to America by adventurers or castaways from the older continent.

Daniel G. Brinton, a well-known American ethnologist, propounds an entirely different theory. 'I think,' he says, 'that America was peopled during, if not before, the great ice age; that its first settlers probably came from Europe by way of a land connexion which once existed over the Northern Atlantic, and that their long and isolated residence on this continent has moulded them all into a singularly homogeneous race, which varies but slightly anywhere on the continent, and has maintained its type unimpaired for countless generations.' Charles Horetzky, in the narrative of his journey from Edmonton to the Pacific, says: 'One cannot but be struck with the Mongolian cast of countenance of the coast Indians of British Columbia. Also among the tribes with whom it is not customary to alter the cranial formation by pressure in infancy, the skull is found to possess the flat central ridge peculiar to the Mongolian races.' Mr. Horetzky adds that, within the memory of some of the Hudson's Bay officers on the Pacific, Japanese

junks had been known to drift across to the coast of British Columbia. He also notes the curious fact that on the west coast of Vancouver Island the mixture of Spanish blood in the native races is clearly visible. The Spaniards, it may be noted, had long ago a settlement at Nootka. Strangely enough, remarks Mr. Horetzky, the Spanish cast of countenance does not show in the women, who have the same flat features as their sisters to the eastward. Nor is it so noticeable among the young men, many of whom, however, have beards—a most unusual appendage among American Indians, and of course traceable to the cause referred to. The features are more observable among the older men, many of whom, with their long, narrow, pointed faces and beards, would, if washed, present very fair models for Don Quixote.

Of the various families and tribes into which the North American Indian is divided, by far the most remarkable is that strange mixture of sagacity and ferocity, the Iroquois. The origin of this famous tribe or family is, in the words of Parkman, lost in hopeless obscurity. There are three conflicting traditions : that they came from the West ; that they came from the North ; that they sprang from the soil of New York ; and, he adds, all are equally useless as aids to historic inquiry. One of the most interesting accounts that we have of the Iroquois is by Miss Pauline Johnson ('Tekahionwake'), herself a daughter of the Mohawks, the most enlightened of the tribes that make up the confederacy of the Six Nations.

'No greater argument,' says Miss Johnson, 'for the principles of sound government can be advanced than a glance at the history of the Iroquois. Always a thrifty people, the first explorers found them settled in the lands of what is now northern New York State, living in log houses, farming in a crude fashion, and astonishing the Europeans with their fields of maize and pumpkins. They were never nomadic, although a fighting race, for

later it was this seemingly peaceful people that produced the few thousand fighting men who held the balance of power when France and England battled for the continent, and the red arm of the Iroquois helped to win it for the latter. Their internal polity,' continues Miss Johnson, 'was marked by equal wisdom, and had been developed and consolidated into a system of government embodying many of what are deemed the best principles and methods of political science—representation, federation, self-government through local and general legislatures, all resulting in personal liberty, combined with strict subordination to public law.'

The great reformer and law-giver of the Iroquois, to whom they were indebted for some of the strongest features in their political system, is one whom most of us have been in the habit of considering a mere figment of the imagination of a New England poet—Hiawatha. Hiawatha, who lived about the middle of the fifteenth century, was 'a chief of high rank and of Onondago blood, a tribe ruled under the iron rod of a crazy and tyrannical chief, Atotarho.' This Atotarho had plunged the Five Nations into war after war, until they were upon the verge of extermination. 'Then stepped forth Hiawatha out of the pages of Indian history, with a scheme which could only have had its birth in the brain of a perfect diplomat.'

The late Horatio Hale, who laboriously translated the wampum records of the Iroquois, gives this description of the project of Hiawatha :—

'With such meditation he had elaborated in his mind the scheme of a vast confederation which would ensure universal peace. . . . The system which he devised was not a transitory league, but a permanent government. Each nation was to retain its own council and its management of local affairs, the general control was to be lodged in a federal senate composed of representatives elected by each nation, holding office during good behaviour and acknowledged as ruling chiefs throughout the

confederacy. Still further, and more remarkably, this confederation was not to be a limited one; it was to be indefinitely expansible. The avowed design of its proposer was to abolish war altogether, and he wished the federation to extend until all the tribes of men should be included in it, and peace should reign everywhere.'

It is, indeed, amazing that this untutored savage should have devised a political scheme upon which the accumulated wisdom of civilised Europe could not improve. Europe, especially the English-speaking part of it, has been in the habit of claiming credit for every scheme of good government which has been devised, and here this Onondago chieftain had the temerity to prepare an elaborate political system, years before a white man laid eyes upon the coast of America.

Hiawatha, it appears, had an uphill fight in persuading the tribes to adopt the new policy. His own tribe held aloof for a time, and Hiawatha boldly left them, and appealed to the great chief of the Mohawks, De Kanawidah. By his eloquence and sincerity he won De Kanawidah and the Mohawks to his project, and the Oneidas, Cayugas, and Senecas followed. Finally the Onondagos also agreed, and thus was born the famous Confederacy of the Five Nations, which has continued intact down to the present day, through all the vicissitudes of tribal war and European invasion.

'That Hiawatha,' says Miss Johnson, 'unaided, devised and executed a federal system that has lasted unshaken for four centuries; that he swayed the first council of fifty-two chiefs from hatred and bloodshed to peace and brotherhood; that he consolidated a government which exists to-day, conducted by the lineal descendants of those very fifty-two chiefs, is what has made him immortal to his own people, and should entitle him to a high place amongst the world's reformers.'

Hiawatha's wider scheme of a universal confederation of all the tribes never reached fruition, and the methods by which the Iroquois sought to persuade some of the

neighbouring tribes to join their league were much more forcible than polite; yet the mere fact that five savage tribes, which had hitherto fought continuously among themselves, were induced to come together in a peaceful league, never afterwards broken, is a remarkable tribute to the mental and moral strength of the Iroquois.

Much has been written about the cruelty of the Iroquois, and of the North American Indians generally, but the critics make the universal mistake of judging this alien race from a European standpoint. Such a point of view is to all intents and purposes the same as that of the Chinaman who condemns the manners and customs of 'foreign devils,' and equally irrational. The North American Indian can only fairly be judged according to his own standards of right and wrong. Right and wrong, in spite of all the moralists, are more or less relative terms. What is a sin to the Turk is highly respectable in the Englishman, and *vice versâ*. The North American Indians, and especially the more highly developed tribes like the Iroquois, had a code of honour as strict in its way as any devised by the nations of Europe, and as a rule Mohawk, Seneca, Onondago, Oneida, or Cayuga warriors lived up to the native code much more thoroughly than the gentlemen of England, France, or Germany have ever lived up to theirs. If a warrior did not, he earned the contempt of his tribe, a punishment infinitely more severe than physical torture.

It should be borne in mind that the relative importance of war and peace has nearly always been the direct opposite, among the Indians, to that which prevails in civilised nations. In America, before the advent of the white man, and for the matter of that for many years after his advent, war was the rule and peace the exception. Consequently, the prevailing rule of conduct was that which applied most closely to the conditions of savage warfare. Even in Christendom, war has not had much to do with the moral code; cruelty, oppression, savagery,

even treachery have not been unknown in the wars of Europe. Why, then, should anything else have been expected from the natives of America? The Iroquois scalped his foe. He expected no better treatment himself. Did he not wear a scalp lock as a standing challenge to the enemy? The Iroquois tortured captives. Did he not himself endure every species of torture without exhibiting a sign of fear; shouting his death-song even while the flames were consuming his hands and feet? To the stoical Indian mind torture and death bore no such frightful meaning as they do to ourselves. Torture brought to the Indian the opportunity for exhibiting the supreme virtue of his race—triumph over pain, and in death he went joyfully to the happy hunting ground.

The native tribes of America have produced, even since the advent of the white man, many men notable for their eminence as warriors, generals, statesmen, or reformers. Hiawatha combined in himself the qualities of both statesman and reformer. Other names, belonging to a more recent period, stand out as brilliantly in the native history of America as those of the great generals of Europe. Pontiac, Tecumseh, and Thayendanegea—the latter better known as Joseph Brant—were all men who wielded an extraordinary influence among their own people, an influence the more remarkable that it was exerted upon a race than which no other has ever been so wedded to individual liberty and impatient of all restraint.

Pontiac was born among the tribe of the Ottawas, of an Ojibiway mother, a circumstance which he afterwards turned to good account in strengthening his influence with both these powerful tribes. 'Pontiac,' says Parkman, 'was pre-eminently endowed with courage, resolution, address, and eloquence. He was shrewd, possessed of a commanding energy and force of mind, and in subtlety and craft could match the best of his wily race. He could be both magnanimous and cruel, noble and

treacherous. He was, in fact, a true Indian, possessing both the virtues and faults of his race, and endowed with a commanding genius.'

Filled with a consuming hatred of the English, an overmastering personal ambition, and a patriotism which, reaching beyond the narrow limits of tribe or confederacy, aimed at nothing less than the recovery of the lost prestige of the Indian, and the driving of the white man out of America, he laboured unceasingly toward the consummation of his project. He gained an almost despotic authority over the tribes that were more immediately under his authority, and his influence was felt throughout the farthest boundaries of the Algonquin race. Though his ambitious dream of an Indian empire fell to the ground, his name was remembered and deeply honoured by all the Algonquin tribes, through many succeeding generations. Drake, in his 'Life of Tecumseh,' mentions that that other famous Indian leader adopted Pontiac as his model.

Of Tecumseh, whose achievements in the war of 1812 entitle him to rank with Brock and De Salaberry, the following description is given by Colonel Coffin, in his 'War of 1812': 'Devoid of education, in the European acceptance of the term, he had yet learned to control himself. Instinctively he had risen above the instincts and passions of his race; he despised plunder; he abjured the use of spirits, overcoming a propensity strong within him. His conduct in the field was only exceeded by his eloquence in council. His influence extended over the warriors of many other Indian nations. With the skill of a statesman he appeased all dissensions, reconciled all interests, and united all minds in one common alliance against the hated Americans. . . . He was about five feet ten inches in height, with the eye of a hawk, and of gesture rapid; of a well-knit, active figure; dignified when composed, and possessing features of countenance which, even in death, indicated a lofty spirit.' An exceedingly interesting account of this famous Indian leader

and his exploits in the war of 1812 is given by Mr. Charles Mair, in his famous narrative poem 'Tecumseh.'

Tecumseh, like Pontiac, had conceived the ambitious project of uniting all the Indian tribes into a warlike confederacy. In his case, however, the object of abhorrence was not the Englishman but the American. His plan, conceived even before the war of 1812 had brought Canada and the United States into armed conflict, was to unite all the tribes surrounding the United States—then still pretty well confined to the territory of the original Thirteen Colonies—from Canada to Florida, in a general plan of attack, in conjunction with the British attack on the seaboard, and the Canadian attack from the north. It is not likely that Tecumseh's scheme ever received the support of either the British or Canadian authorities, and the ambitious chief died before he could attempt to put it into execution; but in all the earlier engagements of the war he proved himself to possess personal bravery, brilliant generalship, and an extraordinary command over his savage followers.

Thayendanegea was of pure Mohawk blood. He sided with the British against the Americans in the war of the Revolution, as Tecumseh did in the later war of 1812. He was the principal war chief of the Six Nations, and revealed extraordinary military genius in his handling of the unruly braves. He also did much to restrain the cruelty of his followers.

Twice he visited England, and on his second visit, in 1786, he is said to have attended a great fancy dress ball. 'It was supposed,' says a Canadian writer, 'that the stately, silent figure with the striking face, piercing eyes, nodding plumes and glittering tomahawk in his belt, was one of the masquerading guests. But the "disguise" was so well maintained as to arouse intense curiosity, and finally one of the masquers, arrayed as a Turk and emboldened by wine, ventured to tweak the visitor's nose. A blood-curdling yell was heard such as made all faces blanch, while the tomahawk was seen to instantly

flash over the helpless head of the trembling wretch. For a moment it gleamed in the air, then, with a low chuckle of delight, was returned by the chief to his girdle. But it is safe to say that the fashionable gathering present never forgot the terrible war-whoop of the Mohawks.'

Thayendanegea once drew the following remarkable comparison between civilised and native life :—

'In the government you call civilised, the happiness of the people is constantly sacrificed to the splendour of empire. Hence your codes of crime and civil laws have had their origin; hence your dungeons and prisons. I will not enlarge on an idea so singular in civilised life, and perhaps disagreeable to you, and will only observe that among us we have no prisons, we have no pompous parade of courts, we have no written laws, and yet judges are as highly revered among us as they are among you, and their decisions are as much regarded.

'Property, to say the least, is as well guarded, and crime as impartially punished. We have among us no splendid villains above the control of our laws. Daring wickedness is here never suffered to triumph over helpless innocence. The estates of widows and orphans are never devoured by enterprising sharpers. In a word, we have no robbery under the colour of law. No person among us desires any other reward for performing a brave and worthy action but the consciousness of having served his nation. Our wise men are called fathers; they truly sustain that character. They are always accessible—I will not say to the meanest of our people, for we have none mean but such as render themselves so by their vices.'

Under modern conditions, the old type of Indian has passed away, and given place to a new type, more in harmony with the ideals of civilisation. Indian warfare is now a thing of the past; consequently what was once the chief aim of native existence has disappeared. In former times, the now thickly settled districts of Eastern Canada and the United States teemed with game of

every description, and millions of buffalo roamed the Western prairies, furnishing food for all the tribes. Now only the Indians of the far North live by the chase. The rest have become for the most part agriculturists, tilling their modest farms on the various Indian reservations, under the paternal and beneficent rule of the Federal Government. There is something almost pathetic in this transformation of the fierce savage of less than a hundred years ago, into a mild-featured, unassuming farmer. At the same time one cannot but recognise the immense advantage of the transformation, both to the Indian himself, and still more to his white neighbour. The aggregate industrial product of the Canadian Indians furnishes a gratifying tribute to the energy and far-sightedness of the Dominion Government, in its attitude towards these wards of the nation. According to the last report of the Department of Indian Affairs, there were nearly 113,000 acres under cultivation on the various reservations throughout the Dominion. From this land the Indians harvested 762,000 bushels of grain, 504,000 bushels of potatoes and other root vegetables, and 83,000 tons of hay. They possessed 86,000 head of cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs, and 70,000 poultry. From fish, furs, and other industries they derived an income of $1,895,000; and their total income amounted to $4,095,000.

By various treaties negotiated with the Indians, from early colonial days down to the present time, the British Government and the succeeding Colonial and Dominion Governments have acquired the vast territories claimed by the various tribes, and it has been largely due to the traditional policy of the Canadian Government, to adhere strictly to every promise and obligation entered into with the Indians, that the latter have been—with the exception of the handful of Indians who followed Riel in his two futile rebellions in the North-West—uniformly loyal and contented. This condition is in marked contrast with the attitude of the Western tribes to the United

States, and is a striking proof of the fact that the North American Indian fully appreciates and responds to fair and honourable treatment. The American Government followed for many years a vacillating and generally unjust policy toward the Indians; making concessions with one hand, and taking them away with the other; negotiating treaties which they never intended to fulfil; granting sums of money for the maintenance of the Indians, the larger portion of which went into the pockets of their own agents. Such a policy—if it can be dignified with that name—inevitably reaped its own reward. While the Canadian tribes were living peacefully on their reservations, the American West was in an almost constant state of turmoil and bloodshed. A small standing army was required to keep the American Indians in a state of even approximate subjection; while across the border members of the same or equally fierce tribes were controlled by a handful of Canadian police.

General Sir William Butler, in that delightful book of travel, 'The Wild North Land,' throws a great deal of light upon the character of the North American Indians, and arraigns in no uncertain terms those who have professed to find nothing but evil in the Indian nature. One story he tells, bearing on the supposedly inherent dishonesty of the Indian, is worth quoting, more especially as General Butler's book is, to their loss, be it said, comparatively unknown to the present generation of readers:—

'The *Moose that Walks* arrived at Hudson's Hope early in the spring. He was sorely in want of gunpowder and shot, for it was the season when the beaver leave their winter houses, and when it is easy to shoot them. So he carried his thirty martenskins to the fort, to barter them for shot, powder, and tobacco.

'There was no person at the Hope. The dwelling-house was closed, the store shut up, the man in charge had not yet come up from St. John's; now what was to be done? Inside that wooden house lay piles and piles

of all that the *Walking Moose* most needed; there was a whole keg of powder; there were bags of shot and tobacco—there was as much as the *Moose* could smoke in his whole life.

'Through a rent in the parchment window the *Moose* looked at all these wonderful things, and at the red flannel shirts, and at the four flint guns, and the spotted cotton handkerchiefs, each worth a sable skin at one end of the fur trade, half a sixpence at the other. There was tea, too—tea, that magic medicine before which life's cares vanished like snow in spring sunshine.

'The *Moose* sat down to think about all these things, but thinking only made matters worse. He was short of ammunition, therefore he had no food, and to think of food when one is very hungry is an unsatisfactory business. It is true that *The Moose that Walks* had only to walk in through that parchment window, and help himself until he was tired. But no, that would not do.

'"Ah!" my Christian friend will exclaim, "Ah, yes, the poor Indian had known the good missionary, and had learnt the lesson of honesty and respect for his neighbour's property."

'Yes; he had learnt the lesson of honesty, but his teacher, my friend, had been other than human. The good missionary had never reached the Hope of Hudson, nor improved the morals of *The Moose that Walks*.

'But let us go on.

'After waiting two days he determined to set off for St. John, two full days' travel. He set out, but his heart failed him, and he turned back again.

'At last, on the fourth day, he entered the parchment window, leaving outside his comrade, to whom he jealously denied admittance. Then he took from the cask of powder three skins' worth, from the tobacco four skins' worth, from the shot the same; and sticking the requisite number of martens in the powder-barrel and the shot-bag and the tobacco-case, he hung up his remaining skins on a nail to the credit of his account, and departed

from this El Dorado, this Bank of England of the Red Man in the wilderness, this Hunt and Roskell of Peace River.

'And when it was all over he went his way, thinking he had done a very reprehensible act, and one by no means to be proud of. Poor *Moose that Walks*, in this trade for skins you are but a small item!'

Pages and chapters might be filled with descriptions of the manners and customs of the Indians of Canada, their religious beliefs, their superstitions, burial customs, marriage, smoking rites, medicine men, creation myths, totems, and legendary law, but the restrictions of space forbid any consideration here of these interesting questions. Parkman throws light upon the individual, family, and tribal life of the Indians, and much more will be found in the narratives of Western American travels and explorations, such as those of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, Lewis and Clark, Warburton Pike, General Butler, the two Henrys, Sir George Simpson, Alexander Ross, Egerton Young, and G. M. Sproat.

Indian eloquence is almost too well known to need more than passing mention. Such speeches as that of Tecumseh to General Proctor, when the latter proposed to retreat before the Americans, in the war of 1812, furnish typical examples. Such a mixture of fierce wrath and scathing sarcasm it would be hard to find among the famous speeches of the world. Tecumseh compared Proctor's conduct of the campaign to that of a fat animal, 'that carries its tail upon its back, but when affrighted, it drops it between its legs and runs off.' Proctor retreated to Moraviantown, despite Tecumseh's bitter remonstrances, and the latter faced him again.

'Brother,' he said, 'have you not run far enough? Do I see before me a chief of our great father on the other side of the waters? He is a great chief, and knows his children. When they do one great deed he gives them this' (laying a hand on one of Proctor's epaulettes); 'when two great deeds, another' (placing his

other hand on the reverse epaulette). 'But where did *you* get these? Brother, you are a chief of the great father. Be like Brock—fight and live, or fight and die. Tecumseh with his warriors will not leave their children nor their lands. If you go, give us your guns, that on to-morrow's sun we may use them. Tecumseh has said, and speaks no more. He fights, perhaps to die.'

The great chieftain fell the following day, in the battle of Moraviantown.

Other striking examples of Indian eloquence are furnished by Pontiac's famous speech to the assembled chiefs and warriors at the river Ecorces, and to the French-Canadians at Detroit, Sigonah's reply to Sir Francis Bond Head at Manitoulin Island, etc.

While the eloquence of the Indian has been acknowledged in his public speeches, he has not usually been given credit for imagination and poetry. Yet no one who has really studied the Indian in his home can doubt that he possesses both. With the arrogance of civilisation, we are inclined to question the ability of the Red Man to see the beauty of nature that lies everywhere around him; but, on the contrary, it is safe to say that the average Indian, whose nature has not been spoiled by too close contact with civilised life, sees much more of the beauty and harmony of nature than does the average white man. A case in point is mentioned by Miss Agnes Laut, in her 'Story of the Trapper.' 'The most brilliant description the writer ever heard of the hereafter was from an old Cree squaw, toothless, wrinkled like leather, belted at the waist like a sack of wool, with hands of dried parchment, and moccasins some five months too odoriferous. Her version ran that heaven would be full of the music of running waters and south winds; that there would always be warm gold sunlight like a midsummer afternoon, with purple shadows, where tired women could rest; that the trees would be covered with blossoms, and all the pebbles of the shore like dewdrops.' If that is not poetry, where shall one find it?

DAWSON CITY, YUKON.

By means of various schools, some supported by the tribes, and others by the Dominion Government, the rising generation of Indians is being equipped to face the conditions of modern life, and many pure-blooded Indians have already won assured positions in the official, professional, and commercial life of the Dominion. Dr. Oronhyatekha, a graduate of Toronto University and Oxford, is a type of the educated Indian. He is of pure Mohawk blood, born in 1841 near Brantford. When King Edward, then Prince of Wales, visited Canada many years ago he met Oronhyatekha, and was so much struck with his intelligence that he sent him to Oxford at his own expense, to complete his medical studies under Sir Henry Acland. Oronhyatekha organised, about twenty-two years ago, the Independent Order of Foresters, a prosperous institution, of which he has ever since been Supreme Chief Ranger.

The Indian is shrewd and sensible enough to recognise the fact that the white man has come to America to stay, and that his only hope of success lies in adapting himself to the white man's mode of living. The more intelligent of the race have therefore eagerly availed themselves of the ample opportunities afforded them for education, with gratifying results. They no longer reject the white man's offer of education, as did their fathers—a curious instance of which occurred at the Treaty of Lancaster (1744) between the Government of Virginia and the Six Nations. The Virginian Commissioners had informed the Indians that the Government was prepared to educate a number of their youth at Williamsburg. The spokesman of the Iroquois replied in these terms—

'We know that you highly esteem the kind of learning taught in those colleges, and that the maintenance of our young men while with you would be very expensive to you. We are convinced, therefore, that you mean to do us good by your proposal, and we thank you heartily. But you who are wise must know that different nations have different conceptions of things, and you will therefore

not take it amiss if our ideas of this kind of education happen not to be the same as yours. We have had some experience of it. Several of our young people were formerly brought up at the colleges of the Northern provinces, they were instructed in all your sciences, but when they came back to us they were bad runners, ignorant of every means of living in the woods, unable to bear either cold or hunger, knew neither how to build a cabin, take a deer, or kill an enemy, spoke our language imperfectly, were, therefore, neither fit for hunters, warriors, or counsellors; they were totally good for nothing. We are not, however, the less obliged by your kind offer, though we decline accepting it, and to show our grateful sense of it, if the gentlemen of Virginia send us a dozen of their sons we will take great care of their education, instruct them in all we know, *and make men of them.*'

That was a delightful touch, in the concluding sentence, and one would give a good deal to have seen the faces of the gentlemen of Virginia—those proud founders of the F.F.V.—as the Iroquois offered to 'make men of them.'

Conditions have changed materially, however, since 1744, and the Iroquois of to-day—at any rate those of them who live in Canada—no longer reject the white man's offer of education.

CANADIAN MILITIA—PARADE OF THE CORONATION CONTINGENT AT THE CITADEL, QUEBEC.

CHAPTER VII

PICTURESQUE CANADA

PERHAPS the most striking characteristic of the scenery of Canada is its marvellous variety. The tourist or lover of nature will find here every kind of scenery that the heart can desire: dyke-lands and marshes that are irresistibly suggestive of Holland; landscapes which in all their characteristics seem to have been taken bodily from some part of rural England; fiords that rival those of Norway; a mountainous wilderness equal to a hundred Alps; rivers and lakes, rapids and waterfalls, snow-capped peaks and emerald valleys; billowy prairies over which millions of buffaloes once roamed; vast forests tenanted by every species of wild animal native to this Northern land. Types of scenery range from dainty bits of landscape to scenes almost appalling in their grandeur and immensity. Nature has built, for the most part, upon a scale of prodigal magnificence. One may steam through Lake Superior for a day without seeing land, and experience storms and seas painfully suggestive of a rough Atlantic passage. The traveller may journey for more than a day on a quick railroad train, across the great plains of the West, where the horizon seems to be at such an infinite distance that the brain reels, and he longs for something tangible to measure things by, a tree, a house—anything that will serve to abate the feeling of utter human insignificance which visits him in the midst of the endless prairie. He may follow four distinct

systems of navigation within the boundaries of the Dominion of Canada; one leading for over two thousand miles from the head of Lake Superior to the Atlantic; another running for 1700 miles, from the Rockies to Hudson's Bay; a third for 1000 miles, from the Rockies to the Pacific; and a fourth, for 2300 miles, from the Rockies to the Arctic. He may wander for weeks in a labyrinth of mountains, where peaks, known and unknown, rise ten to twelve thousand feet above sea-level, and yet have covered only an insignificant portion of the Canadian Rockies. He may travel for weeks in a direct line through Canadian forests, and still be far from their borders.

Perhaps the most appropriate point from which to commence a rapid survey of the picturesque features of the Dominion is that rugged coast which juts out toward Europe, and upon which landed the first white man who set foot in America. Cape Breton is replete with interest, alike to the student of history, the sportsman, and the lover of nature. Here stood for many years the almost impregnable fortress of French power, Louisburg, the ruins of which alone remain to attest its former glory; and here the fisherman and the tourist may find equal pleasure around the shores of that curious and very beautiful inland sea, the Bras d'Or.

It were folly to attempt to give, within the narrow limits of a single chapter, anything like an adequate idea of the extent and variety of the natural beauties of Canada. All that is at all possible is to offer a few sketches of typical Canadian scenes.

Halifax, the capital of the most easterly of the provinces, and Victoria, the capital of the most westerly, possess more of the characteristics and atmosphere of English towns than any other of the Canadian cities. Probably the presence of the two fleets—the North Atlantic and North Pacific—has contributed to this, as has also, in the case of Halifax, the presence of an Imperial garrison.

Halifax possesses an ideal park, as different from the

conventional city park, with its prim mathematical walks, immaculate lawns, and 'Keep off the Grass' signs, as a wild flower springing through some mossy bank in the depth of the forest is different from the same flower in a stifling hothouse. Nature had built Point Pleasant park before the white man ever saw these shores, and the white man, with unusual discrimination and modesty, contented himself with constructing a good road around the outskirts of the park, where the surf beats upon the shore almost at one's feet, and continuing the same road, corkscrew fashion, to the summit of a hill that lies in the centre of the park. This, with a few unobtrusive pathways through the trees, rustic seats here and there, and the clearing away of dead leaves and underbrush, is about all that has been done—and the result is a park that retains all the beauty and charm of nature.

From Halifax one may reach in a few hours that secluded valley on the shores of the basin of Minas, where Longfellow found his inspiration for 'Evangeline.' This valley of the Gaspereau is one of surpassing loveliness. It has nothing in common with the more characteristic scenery of Canada. It is bounded by no lofty mountains; its rivers could certainly not be described as majestic; no immense lakes lie in its midst. It contains, in fact, no suggestion of vastness or illimitable space. It is simply a secluded valley, far from the noise and turmoil of modern life, far from its stress and strain, combining the quaintness of a Dutch landscape, the serene loveliness of a bit of rural England, and just that touch of wildness which marks it as part of the American continent.

In the heart of this valley lies a village, almost hidden in groves of ancient trees. It is called Grand Prè, and it is the legitimate successor of that romantic village around which clustered the Acadian settlements of one hundred and fifty years ago. Nowhere outside of Quebec may one get such an abiding impression of the old French *régime*. The atmosphere of the place is redolent of it.

As one enters the village one sees rows of ancient, gnarled willows planted by the Acadians. In a neighbouring field is shown what is known as 'Evangeline's Well," and near it were unearthed a few years ago some antiquated blacksmith's tools, sufficient to justify the agreeable tradition that this was the very site of the village smithy of which we read in 'Evangeline.' With naïve simplicity the villagers have fitted up the old well with a painfully modern pump; but when one has turned one's back on the pump, it is not difficult to imagine the scenes of long ago, more especially as the essential features of the landscape are the same now as then. Blomodin still guards the narrow entrance to the basin of Minas; the famous tides, with their rise and fall of fifty feet, wash against the same dykes which the Acadians constructed to shut out the sea from their rich dyke-lands; the Gaspereau ebbs and flows up through the heart of the valley as it did a hundred or two hundred years ago; even the placid, lazy little hamlet, though it belongs entirely to the period of British rule, seems to have caught and retained the atmosphere of the old *régime*.

Historic truth and poetry do not often go together, and Longfellow's 'Evangeline' is no exception to the rule. The tale is such a picturesque and affecting one that it seems almost like sacrilege to question its authenticity. The fact remains, however, that Longfellow drew largely upon his vivid imagination in writing the poem, with the doubtful assistance of not altogether impartial narratives. The alleged wanton cruelty displayed by the British or Colonial authorities, in connexion with the expulsion of the Acadians, is largely discounted after one has had an opportunity of examining contemporary documents. Emotional writers pictured the Acadians—just as the Boers have been described—as a simple-minded, unsophisticated, peace-loving race, without an atom of guile. So they may have seemed on the surface, but if we are to believe the official narratives, the Acadian

THE CITADEL, QUEBEC.

farmers of one hundred and fifty years ago possessed the same faculty for making trouble as the South African farmers of our own time. The situation finally became intolerable; Briton and Acadian could not live peacefully in the same colony; and so the latter had to go. There was undoubtedly a great deal of hardship in this compulsory exile, and the methods employed by the British in carrying it into effect have not escaped condemnation at the hands of apparently impartial critics.*

Annapolis Royal, embowered in foliage as all these valley towns are, carries one back to the very beginnings of French rule, when De Monts, Champlain, and Poutrincourt made the first settlement upon the shores of the beautiful basin which they called Port Royal. Annapolis stands at the eastern end of the basin, and at the other end Digby, where in midsummer the trees are loaded with every description of cherries—Digby is famous for its cherries. Below Digby an hour or two by train takes the curious tourist to the French shore, where one may wander through village after village and hear nothing but French. These are the descendants of old Acadian families, who drifted back to the province from New England and other places to which they had been deported.

From Digby, one may cross the Bay of Fundy to St. John, an old seaport that for many years lived mainly in the past. This was the site of one of the early French settlements, and here, many years later, came a large number of United Empire Loyalists, from whom many New Brunswick families are descended. Before the Crimean War, St. John was one of the most important shipping points on the Atlantic coast. It suffered severely from the widespread depression in shipping which followed upon the conclusion of the war, but in recent years has begun to pick up much of its lost

* For a full presentation of the case of the Acadians, see 'Acadia: Missing Links of a lost chapter in American History,' by Edouard Richard (New York, 1895; 2 volumes).

prestige. In the days of the wooden ship the harbour of St. John presented one of the liveliest scenes on the American coast; ships of all sorts and sizes went in and out from morning till night, and the aggregate traffic was enormous for those days.

At St. John visitors are shown the curious phenomenon of the Reversible Falls, where tide and river struggle for mastery. At the point where the suspension bridge crosses the river, the latter narrows to a deep, rocky gorge. Above the gorge the river expands into a wide basin. As the tides rush in from the sea they form a tumultuous rapid through the gorge, and then spread out over the basin. As they fall, the river regains its lost ascendancy, and the accumulated waters of river and sea rush madly back through the gorge, forming a considerable waterfall.

At the upper end of the Bay of Fundy, on the New Brunswick side, the same Dutch type of landscape is found as on the shores of the basin of Minas. These are the marshes of Tantramar, the praises of which have been sung by Charles Roberts—

'Yonder lie broad the Westmoreland marshes,—
Miles on miles they extend, level, and grassy, and dim,
Clear from the long red sweep of flats to the sky in the distance,
Save for the outlying heights,—
Miles on miles outrolled, and the river channels divide them,—
Miles on miles of green, barred by the hurtling gusts.'

From Point du Chene, on the Northumberland shore of New Brunswick, the traveller crosses the channel to the little province of Prince Edward Island, where everything is on a curiously diminutive scale, hills and rivers, towns and railways, legislature and salaries. The Prince Edward Island Railway is a branch of the Government system, and it is said that the contractors, for the double purpose of saving the expense of blasting or digging, and increasing the mileage and with it the contract price, invariably carried the road around any rising ground rather than over or through it. This may be only a

wicked slander, but the fact remains that the journey from Summerside to Charlottetown is one of the most disturbing experiences any one can have. The little narrow gauge line turns and twists and doubles until the traveller reaches the verge of sea-sickness (or train-sickness, it should perhaps be called). It is popularly supposed on the island that at a certain exceptionally fantastic curve, the conductor, standing upon the rear platform, can and does offer a chew of tobacco to the engineer on the locomotive. However this may be, the traveller is none too sorry to reach Charlottetown, where, despite its diminutive size, one may find several comfortable hotels. The sea beaches of Prince Edward Island, especially on the Atlantic side, draw an increasing number of visitors every summer.

Crossing to the mainland once more, and turning northward, we follow the coast to the gulf and river St. Lawrence, passing the Restigouche, the Metapedia, and other rivers famous alike for their picturesqueness and their salmon-fishing, until we reach the watering-places of Cacouna and Riviere-du-Loup. Opposite Riviere-du-Loup the mouth of the Saguenay is seen, leading up to the far North. This majestic stream is from one to one and a half miles wide for fifty miles from its outlet. Both banks rise from the water's edge in such lofty precipices that the river, despite its width, is clothed in almost perpetual gloom. The twin peaks, Trinity and Eternity, stand 1600 to 1800 feet above the river, and tend to still further dwarf the little steamers that ply up and down the river.

It is questionable whether one can find anywhere in America a scene more impressively beautiful—combining more happily human interest and a picturesque environment—than that of Quebec. Here before one's eyes, clinging precariously to the slope and summit of a towering cliff, appears a city of almost oriental splendour, its sky-line broken by numerous spires, minarets, and cupolas, and its ancient tin roofs blazing and sparkling

in the brilliant sun that, whether in midsummer or mid-winter, pours its radiance upon the ancient capital of Canada.

Around and through the quaint old town (so curiously out of place on this intensely modern continent) winds a massive wall, the stones of which might surely tell many a tale of war and pillage, for Quebec has sustained five distinct sieges at the hands of civilised armies or fleets, and has known as well the ferocious savagery of Iroquois attack. Some of the gates which once led through the wall into the city have been sacrificed to the demands of modern traffic, but two or three remain, though not in their original form, to suggest the romantic and tragic pictures of which they formed the frame-work.

Through the old St. Louis gate (named by Richelieu after his royal master, and unfortunately replaced by a modern structure) was carried, a century and a half ago, the mortally wounded Montcalm, while the intrepid Wolfe lay dead upon the plains of Abraham; and through the same gate marched a few days afterwards Wolfe's victorious soldiers, to take possession of the captured city. At the gorge of the west bastion, seventeen years later, they laid the body of the ill-fated Montgomery, fallen at the head of his American troops, in an unsuccessful attempt to storm the battlements.

Turning from the city itself, the eye is attracted by the frowning heights of Cape Diamond, with its crowning citadel. This tremendous work, the 'Key to Canada,' as it was once called, was planned by the French engineer, De Lery, a native Canadian, and built between 1823 and 1830, by order of the Duke of Wellington, at a cost of £5,000,000. The materials for its construction had to be hoisted 350 feet from the river below.

The remainder of the picture is made up of a vast panorama of mountain and river, forest and plain, blended as only Nature, the master-artist, knows how, and arched over by a cloudless sky. Far to the north-east rises the

QUEBEC, FROM LEVIS.

misty summit of Cape Tormente; nearer at hand one catches a glimpse of the curtain-like Falls of Montmorency; while in the background lies the purple range of the Laurentians. The St. Lawrence makes a delightful foreground to the picture, its surface dotted with scores of vessels great and small, river steamers, ocean liners, graceful yachts, sturdy coasting steamers, nondescript fishing craft, and all the flotsam and jetsam of a great harbour.

'Beneath, the glossy river slept in shadow, or spread far and wide in sheets of burnished bronze; and the white moon, paling in the face of day, hung like a disk of silver in the western sky. Now a fervid light touched the dead top of the hemlock, and, creeping downward, bathed the mossy beard of the patriarchal cedar, unstirred in the breathless air. Now, a fiercer spark beamed from the east; and now, half risen on the sight, a dome of crimson fire, the sun blazed with floods of radiance across the awakened wilderness.'

Every reader of Parkman will remember this inimitable picture of sunrise on the Ottawa. Champlain, with his usual indomitable energy, was pushing his way up the Ottawa, convinced that he was at last on the track of the long-sought and always elusive road to China. He had reached that most picturesque spot where now rise the towers and steeples of the Canadian capital.

'The still surface of the river was flecked with spots of foam; islets of froth floated by, tokens of some great convulsion. Then, on their left, the falling curtain of the Rideau shone like silver betwixt its bordering woods, and in front, white as a snowdrift, the cataracts of the Chaudiere barred the way. They saw the unbridled river careering down its sheeted rocks, foaming in unfathomed chasms, wearying the solitude with the hoarse outcry of its agony and rage.'

The wilderness has given place to civilisation, but otherwise Parkman's description is as applicable now as it was three hundred years ago, when Samuel de

Champlain gazed with wondering eyes upon the unfamiliar scene.

When the city is wrapped in sleep, and the light of a glorious moon lends a fairy splendour to river and mountain, forest and waterfall, roof, tower, and steeple, or in the less mysterious but more glorious hour of sunrise, one can best recall Parkman's picture of 1813. Let the visitor make his way around the green terraces of Parliament Hill to the little summer house that stands on the edge of the cliff. The Chaudiere, in daytime silenced by the noisy city, speaks again, as it did before the irrepressible white man invaded its realm, and harnessed its waters to do his bidding. The Rideau, hidden from view behind the rocky promontory of Nepean Point, sends a majestic answer to the song of the great cataract. The broad and stately river, its surface foam-crowned and sparkling with a million eddies and ripples, flows swiftly between banks which even the presence of countless lumber-piles cannot make anything but picturesque. The splendid sweep of the lofty southern shore, with the emerald cliffs of Parliament Hill dropping sheer to the water's edge, many feet below, remains still unspoiled by the ruthless hand of man. Pine and maple, cedar and hemlock cling to its rocky face, as they did when Champlain gazed upward to the heights from his frail and unsteady canoe three centuries ago.

Midway between hilltop and water's edge, just visible through trees and bushes, the ' Lovers' Walk ' circles the cliff, following the course of an ancient Indian trail, and the later path of pioneer raftsmen. To the north-east the Gatineau joins the Ottawa, flowing turbulently from its far-off source in the wild North country. In the distant background the Laurentians, still clothed in primeval verdure from foot to summit, lend an added dignity to the scene.

Who shall attempt to describe Niagara—the king of waterfalls? We all try. It is reasonable to suppose

that nine out of every ten tourists who visit the great cataract make an effort to describe the sensations that moved them when they stood, in their puny mortality, before one of nature's greatest masterpieces. Niagara induces a species of madness—an accession of literary fever, however momentary. And, indeed, it is natural enough that those who have looked upon that mad turmoil of waters, curling smoothly at the brink, and then dropping sheer—down—down—down—one hundred and sixty feet into the caldron beneath, should feel irresistibly impelled to picture the scene to those who have not been so fortunate. And then that mad race down the rocky gorge to the far-off lake—how can one forget it! For seven miles the accumulated waters of four great inland seas are hurled onward and downward through a deep, tortuous canyon, dashing furiously from shore to shore, roaring in titanic fury as they strike against some hidden rock; rolling one moment in majestic emerald waves, and breaking the next into a frantic confusion of foam and spray; turning about in sinister circles at the great whirlpool; and again raging madly down the gorge: until at length the river takes its quieter way beyond Queenstown—where, far above, crowning the heights, stands the noble monument to Sir Isaac Brock—and winds majestically out into the placid waters of Lake Ontario.

There is a charm about the Western prairie which is quite beyond description. Those who know it not think of it merely as an interminable dead level, monotonous, uninteresting, productive of intolerable loneliness. But ask any man who has made his home there; he may be—he often is—a young Englishman from crowded England, where life is a perpetual kaleidoscope; but he will almost invariably tell you that he would not change the Western plains for a kingdom in the East. Occasionally he thinks he would like to have a look at the old scenes of his boyhood, in England, in Eastern Canada, or in the Eastern States. He packs his grip and rushes off with Western impetuousness—but returns long before he

intended. He will tell you that he cannot breathe in the East. London, or Montreal, or New York suffocates him, after he has lived a few years on the prairie. He misses the clear, dry, bracing air; the boundless horizon; the closeness to Nature; the simplicity of the Western life, and the absence of that artificiality and falsity of vision which are only too prevalent in modern society, here as elsewhere. His soul, accustomed to the breadth and dignity of Nature, rebels at the trivial conventions of the East; and he finds that in place of the good comradeship and genuine democracy of the West, each man in the East suspects his brother, and all are classified according to some petty social law.

There is a beauty and charm about the rolling prairie which is all its own, and is different from all else. This beauty is particularly evident in midsummer, when the fields of wheat or hay, counted by square miles rather than acres, are stirred by a gentle breeze, and, as one looks, a ripple runs lightly across the top, and is followed by others, until the scene is transformed into one of beautiful animation, a sea of rippling verdure, under an azure dome.

A famous Western traveller has left this remarkable word-picture of a typical Western Canadian scene—the Forks of the Saskatchewan—

'From north-west and from south-west two broad rivers roll their waters into one common channel, two rivers deep furrowed below the prairie level, curving in great bends through tree-fringed valleys. One river has travelled through eight hundred miles of rich rolling landscape; the other has run its course of nine hundred through waste and arid solitudes; both have had their sources in mountain summits where the avalanche thundered forth to solitude the tidings of their birth. And here at this point, like two lives, which, coming from a distance, are drawn together by some mysterious sympathy, and blended into one are henceforth to know only the final separation, these rivers roll their currents into one majestic stream, which, sinking into a deep

THE VILLAGE OF GRAND PRÉ, NOVA SCOTIA (THE HOME OF EVANGELINE).

gorge, sweeps eastward through unbroken pine forest. The winding stream rests in voiceless solitude, and the summer sun goes down beyond silent river reaches, gleaming upon a virgin land. Standing at this junction of the two Saskatchewan rivers, the traveller sees to the north and east the dark ranks of the great sub-Arctic forest, while to the south and west begin the endless prairies of the middle continent.'

No one with an atom of sentiment in his composition can behold unmoved a sunset behind the Rockies. Camping among the foothills, where on one side the ground slopes down in rolling terraces to the level prairie, and on the other the hills rise up to the foot of the mountains, and Nature seems to be in her quietest mood, one becomes prepared for that mysterious revelation which comes with the going down of the sun. At that hour a deeper stillness seems to steal over the earth; even the irrepressible coyote is silent. The sun sinks slowly behind the distant, snow-capped peaks, and a wonderful sea of colour fills all the western sky, emerald and orange, crimson and gold, in glorious confusion. Moment by moment the colours change, shading down imperceptibly, until at last, as the wings of night close gradually over the earth, the vanished sun sends up one last fleeting message—a beam of light so pure and ethereal that it seems born of another world, and against it stands out for the fraction of a second a vision of celestial mountains, snow-white, perfect in outline, and infinitely removed from anything earthly. For a moment the vision floats in the western sky—and then darkness closes over all.

British Columbia has been happily described by the Hon. Edward Blake as a 'Sea of Mountains.' Its towering peaks and cavernous valleys give the impression of having been crumpled up by some omnipotent hand. Everything is upon a colossal scale, peaks and canyons, rivers and valleys, the very trees are gigantic. The Kootenay and Columbia rivers have their sources within a few miles of each other. The Columbia flows north,

and then turns and flows south parallel with itself. The Kootenay flows south, crosses the International Boundary, and then turns north again into Canada, also parallel with itself, and finally flows west until it joins the Columbia, and the united streams wander off toward the Pacific. British Columbia is full of such eccentricities.

The writer has a vivid recollection of travelling through the Crows' Nest Pass a few years ago, while the branch line of the Canadian Pacific Railway was under construction. The experience was one worth remembering, though at the time it was not without its discomforts. The track had only been recently laid to the Kootenay river, and a great deal had not yet been ballasted. We travelled on a gravel train, and the sensation was very much like driving over an extremely rough and uneven road. The only 'hotels' were those patronised by the construction gangs—rough log shacks, built in clearings beside the track. The bill of fare consisted of tinned corn-beef, bread, coffee with condensed milk, and we thoroughly enjoyed it, for our appetites had been whetted by the keen mountain air. One slept with many misgivings, for small, unwelcome bedfellows were always to be anticipated in these mountain shacks, but fortunately we managed to get through the pass without meeting any of them. Arrived at the Kootenay, we found that the railway bridge was not yet completed, and the railway ended temporarily at a little place called Wardner. We had two alternatives: to ride a hundred miles across country, and very rough country at that; or to take the steamer down and up the Kootenay to Nelson. We preferred the latter, and never regretted it, though it took us a couple of days to travel a hundred miles as the crow flies. The way that queer little stern-wheel Kootenay steamer comported itself was a source of constant interest. The south branch of the Kootenay has a very swift current; its banks are uniformly soft; and they are guiltless of wharves or landing-stages of any kind or description. When a passenger wished to be landed, the captain

simply turned the boat's prow toward the shore, and ran her gently into the bank. A plank was tossed out, and the passenger scrambled over it to dry land. The engines were reversed, and the vessel would swing around in the current, floating down stream stern first, quite unconcernedly, until the captain found it convenient to turn her bow about. In this leisurely fashion we journeyed to Jennings, on the American side of the border, where we took train for Bonner's Ferry, and there caught another steamer, which took us up the north branch of the Kootenay, and through Kootenay Lake to the British Columbian town of Nelson.

The scenery along this branch of the Kootenay is marvellously beautiful. The river winds and twists continually, and at every bend one gets a new picture of green valleys and lofty mountain peaks, all mirrored in the still waters of the Kootenay so perfectly that one can hardly tell where the real landscape ends and the reflection begins. This Kootenay country is a delightful place in which to spend the summer months. One may wander for days and weeks through an almost endless chain of rivers and lakes, where fish are plentiful, and large and small game equally accessible; where the scenery is something to be remembered in after years; and the air full of the intoxicating qualities of the Canadian West.

One might fill the pages of a large book with descriptions of typical Canadian scenes, and still not the half would be told. The serene beauty of the Thousand Islands is as charming in its way as the picturesqueness of the St. Maurice, the abundant beauty of the Muskoka region, or the wild fascination of the Gatineau. Even in the far North Nature presents countless scenes to charm the eye and stir the imagination. The Peace River Valley—through which the new transcontinental railway will run—is one of the most beautiful on the continent, and the Mackenzie—though the ordinary tourist is not likely to get so far north for some years to come—presents scenes of the most impressive grandeur.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CANADIAN WOMAN

One of the most powerful factors for good, in the public as well as the private life of this young country, is the influence of women. From the very beginning—from the day when the first white woman stepped upon Canadian soil—the influence of her sex has been strongly felt in the development of the colony, both under French and British rule. If we could trace the inner history of many of our most vital social reforms, we should find that they were born in the heart of some true woman, and that, directly or indirectly, women were largely instrumental in forcing them to a successful issue. In the religious life of the people, as well as in its educational, philanthropic, and social aspects, woman's influence has always been paramount.

The Hôtel-Dieu of Montreal was founded by a woman, Mlle. Mance, about the middle of the seventeenth century. This hospital was placed in charge of the sisterhood known as the Hospitalers of La Fleche; the same noble order which, two centuries later, voluntarily assumed a task than which it would be hard to conceive any requiring more heroic self-sacrifice—the care of the lepers at the lazar-house of Tracadie, New Brunswick.

Two of the most energetic of the Roman Catholic orders were founded by French-Canadian women. The Order of the Sisters of Charity, or Grey Nuns as they are commonly called in Canada, was founded in 1747 by Madame

d'Youville. The Grey Nuns, whose houses are established throughout Canada, consecrate themselves to the care of the aged poor, the orphan, the sick, the blind, and the insane. Toward the middle of the last century, another order was founded in Montreal by a devoted woman, Madame Gamelin. This order, the Sisters of Providence, is devoted to philanthropic work, the energies of the mother house in Montreal being given to the care of the deaf and dumb. The order has grown amazingly since its birth, branches having been established not only throughout Canada, but also in the United States and South America, one of the branches being as far off as Chili.

Madeleine de Verchères, whose romantic story has been told elsewhere in this book, was not the only Canadian to defend her home against the attack of an enemy. In the early days of the French *régime* the site of the present city of St. John, New Brunswick, was occupied by a French fort, built and commanded by Charles de la Tour. De la Tour had done good service for France in the New World, but through the Court intrigues of a rival, Charnisay, the King was persuaded to order his arrest. Charnisay, whose headquarters were at Port Royal, brought a force of five hundred men across the bay, to capture the fort and carry its commandant a prisoner to France. De la Tour, however, successfully defended his fort, and eventually drove Charnisay back to Port Royal. The following year the latter returned to the attack. He had learned that De la Tour had gone to Boston, and that the fort was in charge of his wife. Victory seemed easy. He advanced against the fort with several ships, but, much to his surprise, was met with such a fierce resistance that he was compelled to draw off to the mouth of the harbour. After a two-months' blockade Charnisay landed a strong force, under cover of night, and attacked the fort from the landward side. For three days the half-starved but plucky little garrison, under the leadership of the courageous Madame

de la Tour, successfully resisted all the efforts of Charnisay and his men to break into the fort. At last a traitor in the garrison threw open the gates, but, even when inside, the garrison fought so desperately that Charnisay called for a truce and offered honourable terms if Madame de la Tour would surrender the fort. Knowing the hopelessness of continuing such an uneven contest, Madame de la Tour signed the articles of surrender; but having gained his end, and disarmed the force, Charnisay, with infamous treachery, hanged every man of the garrison before the eyes of their heroic leader, who was compelled to witness their fate with a halter around her neck. Charnisay dared not inflict the same horrible punishment upon Madame de la Tour, but he carried her to Port Royal, where, three weeks afterward, she died of a broken heart.

Something has already been said, in the chapter on the French-Canadian, about the life and customs of the people of Quebec. The French-Canadian woman is the most careful and exacting of housekeepers. Herself the very type of neatness and cleanliness, she sees to it that everything around her is in the same immaculate state. 'The real French-Canadian housekeeper,' says Madame Dandurand, than whom no one is more qualified to speak authoritatively of the women and homes of Quebec, 'not content with brushing the furniture, rubs the table underneath as well as on top. The rich are not the only ones to cultivate this perfection in housekeeping. At any time, through the half-open door of a thatched cottage, the passer-by may catch a glimpse of a well-arranged interior; neat rag carpets drawn in a straight line over the floor, yellow with recent scrubbings; a brightly polished iron stove; and opposite to that, standing in rigid solemnity, the *lit de parade*, or best bedstead.'

'All pleasurable and all serious occasions,' adds Madame Dandurand, 'are prepared for by a grand scrubbing from top to bottom. The feasts of New Year and Easter—supreme moments of rejoicing in the lives

of the peasants—marriages, visits of M. le Curé, lose much of their attraction and distinction if not preceded by a most scrupulous sweeping and cleaning. The greater the event, the more thorough the overhauling. One little corner neglected causes as much remorse as a sin unconfessed. And for still greater perfection, on the eve of the principal feasts, each person completes the process of general purification by a confession, which renders the soul as shining as the furniture, and spreads an atmosphere of serenity in the interior in harmony with the state of grace of the family.'

Woman is here, as elsewhere, the bulwark of religion. Religion enters into the full life of the French-Canadian woman. It is not a thing to be donned once a week, and put off for the succeeding six days. M. le Curé is always a welcome visitor in the homes of rich and poor alike, and he finds in the women of his parish his sincerest and most effective allies.

In Quebec, as in all the provinces of Canada, the home is the sure foundation of the whole social structure. Canadians, French and English, rich and poor, are universally wedded to the family hearth; and it is just this home feeling which has had a preponderating influence in moulding the character of the Canadian people, and giving to it those qualities of sobriety and cheerfulness which make for permanence in national as well as in family life. The feverishness, the nervousness, the irritability, the restless search after excitement, which so widely characterise the character of the people of the United States, will be looked for almost in vain on this side of the border; and it is not hard to find, in the gradual weakening of home ties in the former country, and the firm maintenance of those ties in Canada, the explanation of much of the apparent discrepancy in character of the two nations.

The young girl of Quebec, like her European cousin, is educated at a convent, where her mental and moral character is well looked after. She marries early, and

seems almost instinctively to acquire those housewifely and matronly accomplishments which make her home the admiration and envy of outsiders.

The laws of natural selection and the survival of the fittest are curiously exemplified in the province of Quebec. Among the French-Canadians there is no grinding down to a uniform dead level, educationally or otherwise. The talented member of the family climbs steadily to the top of the professional or business tree, while his brethren toil at the foot; the beauty marries well, and achieves social distinction, while her plain sister is content to move in a humbler sphere. Yet one finds less snobbery and more true democracy here than in many older countries. The statesman and his brother on the farm remain excellent friends; his Grace the Archbishop is in no wise ashamed of his father because the latter moves in a humbler circle; the woman of society does not neglect to visit her less ambitious sister.

The French-Canadian woman—to quote again the words of one who knows her intimately—'represents, in the hearts of her people, wisdom. Those who are privileged to attain to her confidence find there good counsel. Her sweetness, like oil, softens manners. Her uprightness and her native purity have their unconscious influence. She preserves the worship of the ideal. She transmits from generation to generation, by example and heredity, unaffected goodness, moral and physical health. . . . She is not a spartan, but something else and better—a good mother.'

The women of the English-speaking provinces of the Dominion reveal the predominance of British descent. As has been elsewhere indicated, the backbone both of Upper Canada, or Ontario, and the Maritime Provinces was furnished by the exodus of U.E. Loyalists to Canada after the Revolutionary War. These men and women, British by descent and sentiment, and Colonial by birth and education, brought with them to Canada many of the best qualities of both. To British shrewdness

and common sense they added a self-reliance and adaptability born of the strenuous conditions of their Colonial home. Circumstances for the most part compelled them to adopt farming, and after a few years of privation, when crops would not materialise, and much hardship and suffering was experienced, they settled down to the new life with a determination to succeed which inevitably brought its own reward. The peculiar conditions of the country led to a species of co-operation, which even now will be found in many of the outlying districts of Ontario, New Brunswick, and other provinces. This co-operation took the shape of what were called 'bees' in Upper Canada, and 'frolics' in the Lower Provinces. Much of the essential preliminary work—work beyond the capacity of a single man—was accomplished in this way. Log cabins and barns were erected on the different farms by the co-operation of the neighbours. Stumps were cleared out in the same way. Later, 'husking bees,' 'reaping bees,' etc., brought the men of each township together, at one or other of the farms, to render similar assistance. These 'bees' or 'frolics' were made the occasion of much feasting and jollification, and were looked forward to, especially by the young people, as red-letter days in their somewhat lonely and monotonous lives.

In these pioneer days nearly everything required for either food or raiment was produced on the farm. Spoons and dishes were for some time made of wood; linen, blankets, and clothing were spun and woven from flax and hemp grown on the farm. Many of the poorer settlers had to be content with dressed deerskins as clothing. Soap was a luxury, and strong lye often served as a substitute. An instance is recorded * of a young girl who, desiring to clean her one garment, a gown of deerskin, dipped it into a tub of lye. To her amazement and consternation, the gown shrivelled away

* In Miss Lizar's very readable and amusing account of life in Upper Canada, 'Humours of '37.'

before her eyes, and she had no alternative but to retire to the cellar until her mother could get her a blanket as a temporary covering.

The farms and ranches of Manitoba and the North-West, as also the early settlements in the province of British Columbia, were largely recruited from good families in Eastern Canada, and still more by the younger sons of English houses. One finds to-day, everywhere in the Canadian West, ploughing on farms, rounding up cattle, in the mining and lumber camps of British Columbia, men holding Oxford and Cambridge degrees, and bearing some of the oldest and proudest names in England. It is a curious fact that, in that efficient little force, the Royal North-West Mounted Police, one frequently finds among the troopers men who, in the East, would rank socially far above many of their officers. When Lord Aberdeen, a recent Governor-General of Canada, visited Fort Macleod, on one of his official tours, the trooper who was sent down from the barracks with his mail turned out to be his own nephew.

In addition to the U.E. Loyalist stock, there is in Ontario a strong infusion of Scottish and North Irish blood, the result of direct immigration from the United Kingdom. The descendants of these shrewd, keen business men, and their thrifty, conscientious wives, hold to-day many of the highest places in the professional and mercantile life of the province. From the Scotch blood especially has come a large percentage of the purely intellectual element.

Neither has the heroic element been wanting in Ontario. As Quebec had her Madeleine de Verchères, and Acadia her Madame de la Tour, so Ontario boasts of her Laura Secord, whose memory has lately been perpetuated by a public monument.

In the war of 1812, on the Niagara frontier, Colonel Fitzgibbon had been sent to occupy an important position called Beaver Dam. He had with him thirty British regulars and thirty Mohawk warriors. The Americans,

who had lately suffered a disastrous defeat, planned to surprise Fitzgibbon, and Colonel Bœrstler, with 550 men and two field-guns of the 14th United States Regiment, was detailed to carry out the movement. The American officers had made their headquarters in the house of a wounded Canadian militiaman, who overheard them discussing their plans, but was unable to do anything himself. His wife, however, undertook to warn Fitzgibbon. By pretending to milk her cow, she managed to elude the sentries and get into the woods. She then made her way, running most of the time, through twenty miles of dense forest, infested by wild animals, to Fitzgibbon's camp, and warned him of the attempt that was to be made to surprise his little party. Fitzgibbon, by a piece of brilliant strategy, not only escaped defeat himself, but managed to capture Bœrstler's entire force.

Coming down to the present time, it may be interesting to glance briefly at the position taken by Canadian women in literature, music, art, and the drama; in the various professions; and in commercial life. Educationally, and as far as the elementary and high schools go, girls have always enjoyed exactly the same advantages in Canada as boys. So far as the universities are concerned, Canada did not escape the narrow conservatism which universally denied, for many years, the right of a woman to place herself intellectually upon an equality with man. It is only about twenty or twenty-one years since the first woman to obtain a B.A. degree graduated from the small New Brunswick college of Mount Allison. Nowadays most of the Canadian colleges and universities admit women to their courses, and grant them degrees; so that, in the matter of academic preparation, women have now practically the same opportunities as men. Having gained her degree, however, the woman's path toward a profession is as yet by no means clear of obstacles.

Women have generally made up the majority of the teaching profession in Canada, but until recently they

were confined strictly to the elementary schools, secondary and collegiate education being entirely in the hands of men. Of late years, however, they have gradually been admitted to positions in the high schools, or collegiate institutes, and in a few cases women have been appointed to minor positions in the colleges and universities. One woman has held a lectureship at McGill University for seven or eight years, and others fill important positions on the staffs of the Royal Victoria College—an institution for women endowed by Lord Strathcona, and affiliated with McGill University—the McGill Conservatorium of Music, the Ontario Medical College for Women, etc.

In the profession of nursing, Canadian women have shown themselves conspicuously successful. In many of the best American hospitals Canadian girls are given the preference over Americans, it having been found that they possess more endurance and cool-headedness than their American cousins. Some of the best positions in the profession, such as that of Lady Superintendent of Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore, are now filled by Canadian women.*

In the year of Confederation the first woman doctor in Canada, Dr. Stowe, began to practise in Toronto. She was a graduate of the New York Medical College for Women. Later she entered her daughter as a student in the Toronto School of Medicine. Miss Stowe graduated in 1883, and the following year obtained her M.D. from Queen's University, Kingston. Women, however, were not encouraged to enter the regular medical schools, and this led to the establishment of the Ontario Medical College for Women, affiliated with Toronto University, from which they secure their degrees. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick the universities have from the first welcomed women students. Only a few have, however, availed themselves of the professional schools and taken

* Training schools have now been established in connexion with all the leading Canadian hospitals, the Royal Victoria at Montreal, Lady Stanley Institute at Ottawa, Toronto, Kingston, etc.

M.D. degrees. In Manitoba, the North-West, and British Columbia, the medical boards issue licences to women upon the same terms as men. Quebec has been more conservative. Bishop's College, Lennoxville, admits women to its medical courses, and grants degrees; but the two great Montreal hospitals, the General and Royal Victoria, have decided not to admit women as medical students. As the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Quebec, as well as the General Medical Council of Great Britain, requires that candidates for medical degrees shall have attended clinics in a hospital having at least one hundred beds, and no hospital of the required size in Quebec is at present open to them, the women of the province are debarred from qualifying for an M.D. degree in their own province. Several efforts have been made, in the Dominion Parliament and elsewhere, to bring about some kind of uniformity in the medical profession in Canada. Under existing conditions a doctor, whether man or woman, is only eligible to practise in the province in which the degree has been granted. A man may be a graduate of McGill, and eminent in his profession, but under the provincial regulations he is not permitted to practise in Manitoba, Ontario, Nova Scotia, or any other province but Quebec. Similarly, an Ontario, Manitoba, or British Columbia doctor is strictly confined to his own province.

Women are gradually making their way in the profession of medicine, and some have already won assured positions in the various cities. It is a curious fact, however, that the most serious obstacle to their success lies in their own sex. The average woman lacks confidence in a woman doctor. She may consult her in regard to minor complaints, but in any serious illness, nine out of ten women will not trust themselves to any but a man doctor.

The legal profession in Canada counts but one woman among its members. Miss Clara Brett Martin obtained the degree of B.C.L. from Toronto University in 1897,

and LL.B. in 1899. Both the provincial law and the regulations of the Law Society of Ontario had to be amended before she could be enrolled as a solicitor and barrister. Miss Martin is now a member of a well-known firm of lawyers. She appears to be, up to the present time, the only Canadian woman who has ventured into the legal profession. In Manitoba and British Columbia women are not legally disqualified from admission to the Bar. In Nova Scotia, Dalhousie University is prepared to admit women to its legal courses, but the Barristers Act of the province prohibits their practising. In Quebec the difficulty seems to be the other way. There is apparently nothing in the provincial statutes to prevent a woman from practising law in Quebec, if she chose to obtain the necessary training demanded by the General Council of the Quebec Bar, by studying in some notary's or attorney's office for four years, but she may not obtain an academic training. The universities of the province have so far refused to admit women to their law faculties.

The practice of some of the Churches in the United States of admitting women to their pastorates has never been followed in Canada, but the Order of Deaconesses has been revived by the Church of England and one or two of the other denominations, and a number of Canadian women have gone to domestic and foreign fields as missionaries. An immense amount of valuable auxiliary work is also done by women in connexion with all the Churches of Canada.

The very important place taken by Canadian women in literature, music, art, and journalism will be briefly dealt with in the following chapter.

The Canadian Civil Service is equally open to men and women who have passed the necessary qualifying examinations. These examinations are held in November of each year, and the candidates must be between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five. Graduates of any Canadian university are exempt from the qualifying examination. There are a number of women employed

in the various departments at Ottawa, and their salaries range from $400.00 to $1000.00 a year. While under the law women are eligible for any position in the Canadian Civil Service, in practice appointments are confined to the lower grades, all the executive offices being filled by men.

There are somewhere in the neighbourhood of 15,000 women farmers in the Dominion, some of whom raise wheat and other cereals, and others follow mixed farming, butter- and cheese-making, poultry, horticulture, bee-keeping, market-gardening, hop-growing, etc. In these special branches of agriculture women have proved themselves to be eminently successful. One family of girls did the packing of 2200 barrels of apples in an orchard near Montreal. In Queen's County, New Brunswick, a family of women have successfully conducted their own farm of 350 acres for the last twenty-five years.

Farming on a large scale, which is the rule rather than the exception in Manitoba and the North-West, is not well adapted to feminine conditions. Women do not, as a rule, possess the requisite capital, and, moreover, the social isolation involved in this kind of farming is repugnant to the sex. To bring farming in the West within reach of women who desire to engage therein, it has been suggested that they should group themselves together in a settlement or colony, achieving by co-operation much better results than would be possible individually. The idea is to divide a large Western farm into a number of small holdings, which could be taken up and operated by women of small capital, each devoting herself to the particular branch of agriculture which her own inclination and the nature of the land, etc., pointed out as most suitable, and the expenses of portable machinery, farm labour, marketing, etc., being met by co-operation.

An effort was made in 1900, in connexion with the 'Hand-Book' prepared by the National Council of Women for distribution at the Paris Exhibition, to

compile a series of statistical tables showing the extent, distribution, and conditions of female labour in Canada, and these tables were published in the 'Hand-Book.' Though confessedly only approximate, they are extremely interesting, and throw a great deal of light upon the part taken by women in the industrial life of the country.

The first table shows the various trades and industries in which women are employed throughout Canada, distributed by provinces. From this it appears that the industries in the province of Quebec in which women are most largely employed are boot and shoe factories, dressmaking and millinery, confectionery, cigar factories, hosiery, and the manufacture of clothing generally. In Ontario they are men's and women's underwear, button factories, woollen mills, dressmaking and millinery, biscuits and confectionery, canning factories, cigar factories, laundries, and dairy farming. In Manitoba they are millinery, dressmaking, ready-made clothing, and biscuit factories. In British Columbia they are canning factories, dressmaking, millinery, confectionery, laundries, tent- and sail-making. In New Brunswick they are milliners and dressmakers, canning, pickle, and jam factories, cotton and woollen mills, and underwear; in Nova Scotia, woollen mills, confectionery, millinery, shoe factories, and dressmaking; in Prince Edward Island, lobster canning, farming, woollen mills, laundries, and dressmaking. Some of these are, of course, obviously feminine occupations, and are so regarded everywhere. Others, however, are peculiar to Canada, and are the outcome of special conditions in this new country.

Domestic service has not been mentioned. It will, of course, be taken for granted that this forms one of the chief occupations of women in all the provinces. In Canada, as elsewhere, the servant problem becomes more serious every year. The demand is always far in excess of the supply. In British Columbia the difficulty has been met by the employment of Chinese men, who

do all the work of the house, cooking, sweeping, bed-making, etc., as well as the laundry. The Chinese are also being employed to a considerable extent in the Eastern cities. What are known as lady-helps or mothers'-helps—girls of education and refinement, who adopt housework as an employment—are also helping to clear the domestic situation. There is also a movement to put domestic service on a better and more scientific footing, by establishing training schools, such as are said to be so successful in London.

It is noted that the greater number of women engaged in industrial pursuits in Canada are native born, also that the great majority live at home, the employers preferring girls who do so; while the conditions in Canada tend to the preservation of a distinct home life.

The second table shows, approximately, the minimum and maximum rate of wages paid to women in Canada. The wages cover, as might be expected, a wide range, and in nearly all cases are below the wage earned by men, in either skilled or unskilled labour. The statement is made that men and women command the same wages when the work is equally well done, but this seems hardly borne out by the facts. It is true that in the majority of establishments where both men and women are employed, women are assigned to inferior and less important work, not being, as a rule, so thoroughly trained, or able physically to do man's work. It has been found that competition exists between women and women, but little or none between women and men, as their work does not lie along parallel lines. The discrepancy will doubtless always exist between the wages of men and women, until the latter go in more generally for scientific training, and also until they take a leaf out of the men's book, and form themselves into strong unions for mutual protection. This species of co-operation, however, seems to be more or less foreign to the woman's nature. She understands perfectly, and acts upon, the principle of competition, but seems unable to grasp the

importance of the far more important principle of co-operation to maintain or raise the price of labour.

The wages in boot and shoe factories range from $1.50 to $8.00 a week; in the manufacture of collars, cuffs, and shirts, from $1.50 to $15.00 a week; in canned fruits, etc., from $3.00 to $12.00; cigar factories, from $2.50 to $10.00; dressmaking, $2.50 to $15.00; button factories, 35 to 75 cents a day; confectionery and fancy biscuit, $3.00 to $7.50 a week; hosiery, $2.00 to $7.00 a week; millinery, $2.50 to $15.00; match factories, $1.00 to $6.00; laundries, 10 to 20 cents an hour; underwear, 50 cents to $1.50 a day; straw and felt hats, $10.00 to $40.00 a month, etc.

Women are gradually finding their way into many departments that have hitherto been regarded as belonging exclusively to men. Among these employments may be mentioned house decorating (*i.e.* inside painting), frescoing, type-setting, market-gardening, in which women are especially successful, mixed farming, etc. Even such unlikely businesses as the management of hack and livery stables, or that of ice-dealers, have been adopted by enterprising women in Canada. A coloured woman, in one of the cities of Eastern Canada, is engaged in the latter business, and employs over a hundred and fifty men, owns several large ice-houses, and eight or ten teams of horses.

A curious list has been compiled of exceptional pursuits engaged in by Canadian women. St. John, N.B., possesses a woman blacksmith; a Toronto woman is proprietor of a boat livery; others, in various Canadian towns and cities, are managers or proprietors of flour and grist mills, cold storage establishments, engineers' supplies, lime-burners, pawnbrokers, taxidermists, wood-dealers, undertakers, etc. A Halifax woman is engaged as a gunsmith, and another Canadian woman—the late Mrs. Chilion Jones—was a well-known breeder of, and authority on, Jersey cows.

The third table gives an approximate idea of the

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number of women over and under sixteen years of age engaged in industrial establishments in the year 1900. There were at that time 91,000 women employed over sixteen years of age, and 9000 under that age.

As a rule women who are engaged in factories work upon an average nine hours a day; sewing women and women in stores and in many other employments work from five to ten hours a day. In busy seasons they are, of course, obliged to work much longer, but are paid for overtime.

The sweating system cannot be said to exist in Canada. The excise laws of the Dominion prevent the introduction of that pernicious system into the cigar industry, and, even where there is any tendency toward it in other manufacturing establishments, the constant and efficient oversight of Government factory inspectors renders it practically impossible.

The franchise has not yet been extended to Canadian women, either for the Dominion House or the provincial legislatures; but in all the provinces widows and spinsters, and, in some cases, married women as well, have the right to vote in municipal elections, on school matters, and on submitted bye-laws. In nearly all the provinces women are also eligible for appointment or election to school boards. New Brunswick has even gone a step further, for by an Act passed in 1896 it is made compulsory that two members of every school board should be women. This Act applies to cities and incorporated towns. New Brunswick has rather a unique record, so far as women suffrage is concerned, for in 1783, when New Brunswick was made a province distinct from Nova Scotia, women had a right to vote in provincial elections, and exercised it. This right was taken away from them in 1791. Among the ordinances of the City of St. John, in the same province, was one passed in 1817, in regard to the fishing rights of the harbour. A day was appointed when the citizens drew lots to secure these privileges, and widows of citizens had the right to draw in common with men until this Act was repealed in 1862.

Bills looking to the enfranchisement of women have been presented in the Dominion Parliament, and in nearly all the provincial legislatures, but have invariably been voted down.* That women have not long ago been granted the franchise is mainly because the majority either did not want it or were indifferent on the subject. It is folly to suppose that, if there was anything like a universal desire on the part of the women of Canada, or any other country, to enjoy the franchise, Parliament would refuse to grant it. Parliament, after all, is simply a collection of men, and each and every one of these men has a wife, or mother, or sister, or perhaps all three. Is it conceivable that if the wives, mothers, or sisters of these men, or a large majority of them, seriously desired the doubtful privilege of voting at federal or provincial elections, an overwhelming majority of their husbands, sons, or brothers would be found time and again voting against a measure looking to that end? As a matter of fact, the average woman does not, and can not, take the same vital interest in politics as the average man. The points of view of the sexes are too radically different to admit of such a thing. The average woman judges things from the individual or family standpoint. Her interest lies very much more in the welfare of the family than in the welfare of the State, or even of the community. Woman is also eminently practical in her attitude toward political questions. Abstract principles, which form so large a part of every political platform, do not appeal either to her heart or her common sense. She must see some concrete advantage in a measure before she consents to take an interest in it. This is not arguing, however, that the granting of the franchise to women would not be a good thing, in the best interests of the country. There would, indeed, always be the fear that the sex, swayed more than men by a brilliant personality, might be carried *en masse* to the support of

* As late as 1895, the late N. F. Davin moved in this direction in the House of Commons (vote, 47 to 101).

measures the end of which they might not clearly see; but the chances of such a contingency would be more than outweighed by the influence, the vast influence, a strong woman's vote would have in the direction of purifying politics, and bringing about measures of social, industrial, and other reform.

How much might be accomplished in these directions, if women were granted the franchise, is clearly shown by the splendid work they have accomplished in Canada merely by organised pressure upon legislative bodies. In a remarkable article by the Countess of Aberdeen on the National Council of Women of Canada, a formidable list is presented of work undertaken or carried through by means of the Council, either in its national, provincial, or local capacity. This list, which unfortunately is much too long to quote in full, covers a wide variety of reform. Here are a few of the things the Council has accomplished—

It obtained the introduction of manual training and instruction in domestic science in the public schools of Ontario, and the training of teachers to give instruction in these subjects.

It has obtained the appointment of women factory inspectors for factories and workshops where women are employed in the provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

It has brought about important changes in the arrangements for women prisoners in various Canadian cities.

It has organised boards of associated charities, and established hospitals in some of the smaller communities.

It has organised cooking schools, cooking classes, and at Quebec is helping in the formation of a training school for domestic servants.*

It has spread sanitary knowledge; obtained legislation against the importation and circulation of impure literature; instituted inquiries into the conditions surrounding working women; secured amendments to the Canadian

* The Princess Louise first suggested these domestic training schools when she was in Canada.

criminal code for the protection of women and children; matured plans for the better care and settlement of women immigrants; and in many other directions has made its influence felt for good throughout the broad Dominion.

No sketch of the Canadian woman would be complete without a few words in regard to those social activities in which woman everywhere forms the preponderating element. The social life of a Canadian city is not materially different from that of an English town. There are not, of course, the same clear-cut social distinctions, but at the same time it would be absurd to suppose that there are no social distinctions. In Canada, as in the United States, and as in every country, aristocratic or democratic, the members of a community inevitably fall into certain more or less well-defined groups. In Canada and the United States there is probably a larger percentage of trade in what we are pleased to call society than is the case in England or on the Continent. Titles are few and far between in Canada, and the large leisure class which forms the bulk of British society is practically unknown.* The masculine side of Canadian life is even more conspicuously absent from society than is the case in older countries. As a consequence, Canadian society

* Incidentally it may be interesting to note the large number of Canadian women who have become socially prominent in English and Continental society, through their marriage with the heads or sons of noble houses. The Dowager-Countess of Albemarle, Lady Carew, the Dowager-Countess of Erroll, Lady Gore, Viscountess Dillon, La Duchesse de Bassano, Lady Northcote, Lady Stanley Clarke, Lady Noble, Lady King, Lady Hamilton, Lady La Touche, Lady Musgrave, Lady Nicholson, the Countess von Zeppelin, the Baroness von Friesen are but a few of the many titled Canadian women whose portraits are found in Dr. Morgan's 'Types of Canadian Women,' lately published. A suggestion was made, in the introduction to this work, that a Royal decoration should be created for Colonial women, similar to the distinctive orders already granted to the women of the mother country and of India. This suggestion has been taken up enthusiastically by all the leading Canadian newspapers, and has received the warm approval of many public men, both in Canada and the other Colonies.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

is made up almost entirely of ladies, wives and daughters of Ministers and Judges, Government officials, members of Parliament and of the provincial legislatures, professional men, and well to-do business men.

The culminating point of Canadian social life is, of course, Government House, and the supreme leader of Canadian society is the wife of the Governor-General for the time being. The social activities of Government House (or Rideau Hall, as it is known locally) depend to some extent upon the character and means of the occupant of the Vice-regal position. Some Governors-General—notably the late Lord Dufferin, the Duke of Argyll, and the Earl of Aberdeen—have entertained much more lavishly than others. There are, however, certain features which may be regarded as fixtures. At the beginning of each Parliamentary session their Excellencies give a State dinner, to which only members of the Cabinet, Judges of the Supreme Court, and high Government officials are invited; their wives and daughters being invited to a reception following the dinner. This is followed by a State ball, covering a much wider social field. Throughout the session a series of formal dinners are given, to which are invited groups of Senators and members of Parliament, with their wives, Government officials of various grades, and a few prominent society people of the capital. In addition to these somewhat stiff functions, their Excellencies give a number of garden parties in the summer season, and in winter a series of skating and tobogganing parties, to which every one of any social standing in Ottawa is invited, but only after they have called at Government House. Occasionally private theatricals are given. At Confederation the understanding was that none but men of Cabinet rank should be sent to Canada as Governors-General. Unfortunately, this agreement has not been fulfilled in all instances. Notwithstanding this seeming breach of faith, it is a matter for congratulation that all the men who have been sent out

to rule, in the name of the Sovereign, over this noble heritage, have, with one single exception, been statesmen of understanding and capacity. The latest appointed to the office is Earl Grey, who took up his residence at Ottawa in December, 1904.

In all the provincial capitals, Toronto, Quebec, Halifax, Fredericton, Charlottetown, Winnipeg, Victoria, and Regina, the wives of the Lieutenant-Governors hold little courts, moulded after the pattern of the Vice-regal court at Ottawa.

The social life of Canada is healthy, mentally, morally, and physically. Canadian communities are made up, for the most part, of earnest, hard-working men and women, but there is never found here that intense, all-absorbing quest of the 'almighty dollar' that has become so noticeable a feature of the American character. Canadians work hard, but they always find time for pleasure and for those social amenities which soften the asperities of modern life. The circumstances of the country also tend to encourage a reasonable indulgence in social amusements. The standard of living is higher in Canada than in most English-speaking communities—much higher than in most of the countries of Europe. Mendicancy or extreme poverty is practically unknown. The Canadian artisan, in the words of a recent English visitor, 'lives as well as the middle-class Englishman at home;' and the upper classes in Canada probably enjoy a higher standard of living than the corresponding classes in the mother country, omitting, of course, the wealthy classes, titled and commoner, of England. Men of great wealth are rare in Canada, but the proportion of those who enjoy a moderate competence is large.

Winter is in Canada peculiarly a season of relaxation, pleasure, and social intercourse. Skating parties, dances, carnivals, tobogganing and snow-shoeing, theatre parties, and other forms of amusement follow in rapid succession. The mercury never drops low enough to keep Canadians indoors unnecessarily. There is, in fact, a bracing quality

in the Canadian winter that induces every one to seek the open air. The dryness of the atmosphere makes a degree of cold enjoyable and invigorating here which would be almost unbearable in moister climates. It must not be forgotten, too, that Canada enjoys a remarkably wide range of temperature, extending over twenty degrees of latitude. At the same moment that people are skating and tobogganing in Ottawa or Quebec, those of Vancouver or Victoria are playing golf or cricket. A straight line drawn across the southern portion of the Dominion runs less than a hundred miles north of New York, and in the same latitude as Florence in Italy. Practically the entire settled portion of Canada is located nearer the Equator than Great Britain. The winter climate of the Maritime Provinces is not much more severe than that of England, and that of British Columbia is, especially along the coast, if anything, milder. A record kept for eighteen years at the Magnetical Observatory at Toronto shows that the total amount of bright sunshine per year averaged 2065 hours, or 46 per cent.* This large percentage of fine, clear, cloudless weather, both in winter and summer, forms one of the principal charms of the Canadian climate, and, taken in conjunction with the peculiarly invigorating quality of the atmosphere, has had a most potent influence upon the character of the Canadian people. It has been instrumental in making the Canadian woman healthy and well-developed both in body and mind, and created a type of feminine beauty which combines the health and colour of the English woman with the vivacity of the American.

* While this is being written—toward the end of November, 1904—the cable despatches bring reports of unprecedented snowstorms throughout Great Britain, and ten to twenty degrees of frost, trains delayed, traffic interrupted, etc. At the very same time Canada—Our Lady of the Snows so-called—is enjoying perfect autumn weather; not even a flurry of snow, bright sunshine, and a temperature generally above the freezing point. Everywhere throughout the West farmers are still ploughing their fields for next year's sowing.

CHAPTER IX

SPORTS AND AMUSEMENTS

FEW countries offer such a variety of first-class and easily accessible sport as the Dominion of Canada. The hunter, the angler, the trapper, the canoeist, the mountain climber, the yachtsman, and the lover of the most manly of all athletic games find ample opportunities here for indulgence in their favourite sports.

For the hunter of big game the range is very wide. Upon the barren lands of the far North roams the monster musk ox. In the fastnesses of the Rocky Mountains lurks the ferocious grizzly bear, while amid the loftiest crags of the same stupendous range the mountain goat and the American big-horn or Rocky Mountain sheep leap unscathed, and with surprising agility, from one rocky ledge to another. The lordly moose still flourishes in a hundred different localities from the Atlantic on the East to the Rocky Mountains on the West, and from the Alaskan boundary in the North to the dividing line between New Brunswick and Maine in the South. The caribou or reindeer and the red or Virginian deer are abundant in the older provinces, and the elk, stag, or wapiti is found in Southern Manitoba and the Peace River district. The graceful antelope still roams the Western plains, and efficient enforcement of the game laws is leading to a desirable increase in the black-tailed or mule deer which inhabit the bush country of the North-West.

Of its kind, there is as good sport to be had with the gun as with the rifle, the feathered game including grouse, prairie fowl, quail, geese, ducks, brant, curlew, snipe, woodcock, plover, etc. Rabbits are abundant everywhere.

The angler enjoys such royal sport in Canadian waters as he cannot repeat elsewhere. The famous tuna, which attracts so many fishermen annually to the coast of Florida, is abundant in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Baie de Chaleurs. Some of the grandest salmon-fishing in the world is to be had in the provinces of Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, and the lovely charr, usually known as the American brook trout, attains its highest perfection and is found in largest numbers in Canadian waters. And what shall be said of the leaping ouananiche or fresh-water salmon of Lake St. John, the gamy bass, the giant pike and maskinongé, the toothsome white fish, and a score of other varieties of Eastern Canada, or of the grayling of the North and the gorgeously coloured rainbow and other trout of the far West? Many of these beautiful Canadian fish have enjoyed the honour of an entire volume devoted to the description of a single species.

The trapper finds no more attractive field for his interesting pursuit of fur-bearing animals, and for matching his ingenuity against the innate cunning of the wild occupants of the forest, than those vast solitudes which, from time immemorial, have been the hunting-grounds of the North American Indians, and the source of supply for all their most valuable furs to the Hudson's Bay Company.

Few mountain ranges offer more attractive explorations to climbers than the Canadian Rockies, and not many lands possess more advantageous waters for yachting and canoeing purposes than those of the Dominion of Canada.

Cricket and football and other British athletic sports are supplemented in Canada by the national game of lacrosse, while the delightful climate of the Canadian

winter and Nature's beneficent gift of a mantle of snow for the protection of vegetation's roots render possible an enjoyable round of winter pastimes and athletic sports, nearly all of which are distinctively Canadian.

The largest and most remarkable of Canadian big game is now a thing of the past, or very nearly so. This is the American bison or buffalo, which, until well on towards the last quarter of the nineteenth century, roamed the Western prairie in countless thousands. The species has now so nearly become extinct that only a very small herd is known to exist in a wild state, though a few specimens are still cared for in captivity. In former times the herds could be discerned stretching across the prairies as far as the eye could see. Their slaughter was fearful. Indians killed them for the skins when they only received three or four dollars apiece, and white men shot them down for the sake of seeing how many they could kill. They formerly occupied the whole country from the United States boundary line north to the Peace River, and from the eastern limit of Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains. Their extinction has been foreseen for some time. In 1877, Lord Strathcona, then a member of the Canadian House of Commons, pleaded eloquently with the Government to take such steps as would effectually prevent the entire destruction of the buffalo in the North-West of Canada. His counsel was disregarded, and in 1881, when the present Duke of Argyll passed over the prairies, he reported that he only met one small herd of thirteen young bulls. There was neither skill nor danger in killing a buffalo in the days when they were plentiful, for a good horse would always outrun one of the animals and could easily lay his rider alongside of him. It was impossible to miss the huge, ungainly brute, and when wounded he was formidable only to a dismounted man. For many years after the disappearance of this splendid specimen of big game, the scenes of his greatest slaughter were marked by enormous piles of bleached bones, many of which have since been shipped east by the Canadian

Pacific railway, for use in the sugar refineries and manufactories of phosphates.

The musk ox is only found in the far North of the Dominion, chiefly upon the barren lands lying between the west shore of the northern part of Hudson's Bay and the eastern boundary of Alaska, and stretching away to the Arctic Ocean. It is never found farther south than latitude 59. It is of the size of a small ox, and, despite its short legs, is very fleet of foot. Its skin is very much prized as a robe. The fleece may almost be called double—a coat of fine, close wool underlying the long surface hair. But few white hunters venture far enough to the north to try a shot at this much-prized game.

The killing of a grizzly is an achievement of which the most daring and most experienced hunter may well feel proud. This bear is not now to be found east of the Rockies, and even in that range there is sometimes considerable difficulty in procuring a trophy. The grizzly is the most ferocious and dangerous of his tribe, being possessed of amazing strength and activity, and attaining a weight, when full grown, of from 700 to 800 pounds. It is unable to climb trees like other bears, and when pursued turns and shows a most determined fight. Considerable skill is required in the pursuit of this animal, and the danger of the chase renders the sport most exciting. The grizzly constantly changes its quarters in order to take advantage of seasonable food. In early spring it may be found high up on the mountain-side, digging at the roots of the skunk cabbage. Later on it will be seen feeding upon the putrid salmon which line the river banks. In the fruit season it feeds upon wild berries. Its skin is not worth much after the end of May. It is sometimes hunted with dogs, which hold it at bay until the hunter's arrival. Others set a bait of deer flesh, and keep watch near by until the expected quarry makes his appearance.

The polar bear is often encountered as far south as Hudson's Straits and Bay, and the coast of Northern

Labrador. Not only have these animals been found on ice-floes and icebergs hundreds of miles from any land, but they have been seen swimming unconcernedly in the water with no ice in sight and more than eighty miles from land. They are usually shot either on ice-floes or swimming in the water. It is said that their forehead is their only vulnerable part, as an express bullet only causes death when it traverses the brain. Mr. A. H. Markham reports the killing of a specimen over ten and a half feet in length and weighing something over half a ton, and states that these animals have been known to exceed even thirteen feet in length, though their average length is seven to eight feet from the tip of the nose to the end of the tail.

The black bear, which is exceedingly common in almost all parts of Canada, is perfectly harmless, never attacking man unless wounded. Its skin is much sought after, and bear's meat is frequently exposed in Canadian markets for sale. There is a species of bear met with in the barren grounds of the North-West and in the Peace River district known as the cinnamon bear, very similar to the black bear in habits and size, but much more rare.

The mountain goat is common from the Rocky Mountains westward to the Cascade range, and as far north as the Arctic Circle. As winter sets in, it descends from above the tree line of the mountains to the lower grounds. It must be stalked with great caution, its habits being very similar to those of the Swiss chamois.

The American big-horn, or Rocky Mountain sheep, is confined entirely to the mountain ranges of the far West, where it dwells secure amongst the high cliffs, leaping unscathed from crag to crag. It is so exceedingly wary and difficult of approach that it has to be stalked with even more precaution than any of the deer tribe. Its northward range extends to the Arctic Circle. The horns and head not infrequently weigh over fifty pounds, the horns of the male being so large at the base that they

cover all the upper portion of the head down nearly to a level with the eyes, and the skull is exceedingly strong.

Canada can boast of at least eight distinct species of the *cervidæ* or deer family, the popular names of these divisions being moose, woodland caribou, barren ground caribou, American elk, Virginia deer, mule deer, black-tail deer, and antelope. The largest and in many respects the most remarkable of the deer is the moose, specimens of which have been found to measure at the shoulder seventy-two inches or eighteen hands. The antlers, which are very much sought after, have sometimes a spread of over seventy inches. In some few districts of Canada this noble game is scarcer than it was, though protection has done very much for it in other parts of the country, and there is little doubt that it is much more plentiful now in many localities than it was ten years ago. It is common in the forest regions of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and thence westward to the Rocky Mountains, and north-westward to the mouth of the Mackenzie river and Alaska. Its most accessible haunts are in New Brunswick, in Northern Ontario, in the Gatineau district of Quebec, and especially along the line of the Quebec and Lake St. John Railway. Its flesh is considered a delicacy, and the hunting of it is quite an art, for the long snout and ears of the animal give it most acute powers of hearing and a very fine sense of smell. The rutting season, which begins in September, is at its height by October. In the early part of this season the Indian guides 'call' the moose through a horn made of birch-bark, uttering a sound at night so similar to the call of the cow that the bull moose is deceived by it, and rushing to respond, dashes in front of the concealed hunter. The other method of hunting the moose consists in tracking it through the woods. This is known as still-hunting or stalking. When the snow becomes deep, the moose has but small chance of escape, sinking, as it does through the crust formed upon the surface, at almost every step. Hunting the animal at this season is

prohibited, but Indian and other poachers frequently do so, and sometimes catch up so close to the moose as to despatch it with knives. When wounded at close quarters, a bull moose will sometimes charge the hunter, and is then a very formidable foe, altogether apart from the use he can make of his antlers, since a blow from his front foot is of sufficient force to kill a horse.

A hundred years ago the wapiti or American elk was an inhabitant of Eastern Canada. Now it is only occasionally met with from Manitoba westward to the Pacific coast, as far north as latitude 57, and also on Vancouver and some of the adjacent islands. Its destruction has been hastened by the ease with which it may be approached. Its fine branching horns make a splendid trophy.

The barren lands caribou extends away beyond the Arctic Circle from the northern limit of the woodland caribou. It shares with the musk ox the desolate regions which it inhabits, and indulges in extensive migrations in both spring and autumn. It seldom exceeds one hundred and fifty pounds in weight, while the woodland variety attains to a weight of four to five hundred pounds. The woodland caribou has a northern range as far as the southern extremity of Hudson's Bay. Formerly abundant in Nova Scotia, it is now almost extinct there, but is otherwise found in scattered Canadian localities from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It is common in the more thickly wooded parts of Northern New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, the North-West Territories and British Columbia, but very rare in North-western Manitoba. In Quebec, the most favourable hunting-grounds for the caribou are in the vicinity of Lake Edward, at Belle Riviere in the Lake St. John district, and in the Laurentides National Park, for hunting in which a licence must be obtained from the Provincial Government. President Roosevelt has correctly pointed out that the sight of a caribou is scarcely as quick as that of the red or Virginian deer, and that it is not so wary as the moose, though, like

all game, it has a good nose. It is generally killed by stalking, and as it is a great swimmer, many unsportsmanlike hunters have killed it while in the water. It is not easily overcome by the villainous habit of 'crusting,' referred to in the case of moose, for, unlike that splendid animal, the caribou is not forced to plunge its feet through the snow to the hard ground. It possesses huge splay hoofs which act as snowshoes, so that it is only under very peculiar conditions of crust that it is possible for a man to get near to one.

The red or Virginian deer is exceedingly abundant in many parts of the provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario, and a slightly different variety is found in the Western provinces. It is much smaller than the caribou, and is by far the most graceful of the American *cervidæ*. In Quebec, it is specially abundant on the south shore of the St. Lawrence, in the direction of the Maine frontier, and also in the Upper Ottawa and Gatineau districts in the North. In Northern Ontario it is also very plentiful indeed. Hounding these deer is permitted for ten days during the season.

The mule deer is found upon the plains of the Saskatchewan and westward as far as the Cascade range in British Columbia, and the black-tail deer extends westward from the Rocky Mountains to the islands off the coast of British Columbia.

The antelope roams the plains south of the North Saskatchewan eastward to the Missouri coteau, and occasionally to the banks of the Assiniboine, in the vicinity of Fort Ellice.

Notwithstanding the very large number of foxes trapped and shot down for their skins, there are several well-organised hunt clubs in the Dominion, with packs of hounds, which carry on the good old English sport. The kennels at Montreal are especially worthy of notice, and the sportsman paying them a visit is certain to receive a cordial welcome.

The gunner in Canada has a large variety of sport with

feathered game to select from. The ruffled grouse has largely increased in recent years in almost every part of the Dominion, particularly in the older provinces. Though of the most exquisite flavour, it is a rather stupid game bird, and the fowler with a good dog may easily get a dozen brace in a day in many different localities.

Geese and ducks of different varieties are wonderfully abundant. How abundant are the geese in their northern summer haunts, from which they fly south every autumn, is illustrated by the fact that the Indians at Fort Albany, James' Bay, furnish 36,000 annually to the Hudson's Bay Company. There are numerous localities all along the Gulf and Lower St. Lawrence where these geese are secured by sportsmen in large numbers. Ducks of various kinds are obtainable not only along with the geese, but also at Lake St. Peter and numerous other localities in the province of Quebec. In Ontario there are admirable ducking grounds in the Holland marsh between Toronto and Collingwood, also at Long Point, Point Pelee, and the St. Clair flats. In Manitoba, in the autumn season, ducks and other water-fowl literally cover every pond and lake. In August the grey duck and merganser make their appearance, succeeded in September by sea ducks of every description; and, during these months, geese, ducks, and prairie fowls take to the stubble fields where civilisation has reached, and are easily shot. Professor Macoun states that about forty species of game birds are to be seen on the prairie at that season. The lakes of the Peace River district are all the resort of countless thousands of geese and ducks during their migrations, thousands of geese being killed and preserved for winter use every autumn at the Hudson's Bay post, Fort Chippewayan. The Duke of Argyll expressed the opinion a few years ago that some of the best duck-shooting to be had in the world may be enjoyed along the northern shores of the great lakes of Canada.

In the early days of settlement the whole Western peninsula of Ontario abounded with the wild turkey, and

GASPÉ BASIN, PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

the peculiar growth of the woodlands there, comparatively free from underbush, afforded magnificent sport. Now, apart from Long Point, where this grand game bird has been recently introduced by a club of sportsmen, the counties of Essex and Kent, in Ontario, are the only localities where it yet remains, and even there it is very rare.

Prairie fowl are plentiful in parts of Manitoba, and also in the valleys of the Cascade region of British Columbia, while occasionally that rare game bird the large sage hen, or 'cock of the plains,' may be found above Osoyoos.

Wild pigeons, which were formerly seen in mighty flocks in all parts of the Dominion, have now almost entirely disappeared, though still occasionally met with in British Columbia.

Snipe, woodcock, and plover are fairly abundant in almost all parts of the Dominion east of the Rockies. The Canadian woodcock is both smaller and redder than that met with in England.

Pheasants have been introduced by a club at Halifax, N.S., and have also been placed in the Algonquin National Park by the Government of Ontario.

There is no exaggeration in the statement that the Dominion of Canada may justly be considered the paradise of the angler. The noble rivers emptying their waters from the North into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and those of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and the Gaspé peninsula of Quebec furnish some of the grandest salmon-fishing in the world. The beautiful charr, *salvelinus fontinalis*, commonly known as the American brook trout, attains its most magnificent proportions in the lakes and rivers of the Lake St. John district of Quebec, and in the far-famed Nepigon and other streams, while the enormous maskinongé, and pike and lake trout, afford sport to anglers from almost every part of the world.

The Duke of Argyll rightly says that the Cascapedia,

upon the bank of which he erected a fishing-house when Governor-General of Canada, is perhaps the best salmon stream in the world. The record fish taken in it by rod and line weighed fifty-four pounds. The Restigouche, the fishing of which is in part controlled by a club of American millionaires, is perhaps almost the peer of the Cascapedia. For the fishing of only a part of the latter-mentioned river, the Provincial Government of Quebec receives a rental of £1500 a year. Almost all the more easily accessible of Canadian salmon streams are now in private hands, but there are a few rivers on the Labrador coast still for lease by the Government of Quebec and private owners, suitable for the accommodation of one to four rods, for from £50 to £200 per year. One of these, which I have at present in mind, yielded over 180 fish in a month's fishing in 1903 with one rod, though the salmon were small, the largest being twenty-one pounds and the average eight pounds. The salmon of these Eastern Canadian rivers are identical with the *salmo salar* of British streams, and are taken by anglers with the fly alone. A few days' fishing may often be leased by the day from proprietors of small salmon rights in the vicinity of Campbellton and in other parts of New Brunswick.

The various salmons of the Pacific coast, though very much more abundant in the rivers of British Columbia than is *salmo salar* in Eastern streams, are only to be taken by anglers with bait or trolls, since they do not rise to the fly. For those who enjoy this kind of sport, the Pacific slope is the place.

An excellent substitute for salmon-fishing is to be had at Lake St. John, 190 miles by rail due north of Quebec, over the Laurentian chain of mountains. Here is to be found the famous ouananiche (pronounced wahnaneesh) or fresh-water salmon, where, amid the roaring rapids of the lake's discharge, and also in its many enormous feeders, the leaping, silvery salmonoid, which is so great a favourite with anglers, matches his cunning and agility

against that of the fisherman, and not infrequently worsts him in the contest. Lieut.-Colonel Andrew Haggard, D.S.O., in his introduction to a book on 'The Ouananiche and its Canadian Environment,' published by Harper and Bros., says that the ouananiche reminds him of Mr. Rudyard Kipling's description of the Fuzzy Wuzzy of the Soudan, and that, like that Hadendowah Arab, it is 'an indiarubber idiot on the spree.' It rises freely to the angler's flies, and fights vigorously for escape when hooked. The fishing for it is open to all guests of the only comfortable hotels in the country in which it is found.

Those fond of canoeing and camping may outfit themselves at these hotels for the ascent of the Peribonca, the Mistassini, the Ashuapmouchouan, or some other feeder of the great lake, which traverses a country of virgin forest, drained by many smaller streams, and thickly bespangled with lakes of various sizes. All these waters contain enormous quantities of fish of various kinds, including monster pike (*esox lucius*), weighing sometimes almost fifty pounds each, pike-perch (*stizostedion vitreum*), American brook trout (*salvelinus fontinalis*), great grey lake trout (*salvelinus namaycush*), often exceeding forty pounds in weight, whitefish (*coregonus clupeiformis*), and many others, including perch, chub, and other varieties of coarse fish, which would be much sought after in older lands, but which obtain but slight recognition from anglers in Canada, where the best types of the game fishes are so abundant. The fish herein mentioned, with the exception of salmon and ouananiche, are to be found in almost all the waters of Canada east of the Rocky Mountains, and in the greater part of them the fishing is absolutely free.

The usual weight of ouananiche is from one to six pounds. Brook trout, as the common American variety is called, whether found in lakes or rivers, and which is perhaps the most beautiful and most widely distributed fish in the Dominion, have been taken up to nine and a

quarter pounds in weight in some of the waters between Quebec and Lake St. John, and as heavy as eight and a quarter pounds in the Nepigon, one of the northern feeders of Lake Superior. This trout is not at all fastidious in its choice of flies or other lures, and makes a most heroic fight. Sea-run specimens are found up to a large size in the estuaries of most of the tributaries of the Lower St. Lawrence, and afford as much sport in the killing as a small salmon. Outside of the lakes and rivers of Eastern Canada, the brook trout is abundant in most of the waters of Eastern and Northern Ontario, and in many of those of the North-West.

The black bass is found in Lake St. Joseph near Quebec; in Brome Lake at Knowlton, south of Montreal; in Thirty-one Mile Lake and other waters of the Upper Ottawa; in Lake Temagamingue in North-East Ontario, one of the most beautiful bodies of water in the Dominion; Lake Nipissing, the famous Muskoka series of lakes, the Trent river, the Rideau, Stony and Rice lakes, and in the waters of Georgian Bay and the Bay of Quinte, and those surrounding the Thousand Islands of the St. Lawrence. Like most of the trout, maskinongé, and other game fishing of the Dominion, the angling for black bass is free almost everywhere. The fish is a ready fighter, whether taken upon the fly or with bait, and usually leaps quite clear of the water several times before being brought to net.

The maskinongé, which attains to a weight of sixty pounds, is found in the entire St. Lawrence system, and also in many inland Canadian lakes. The Bay of Quinte, the vicinity of the Thousand Islands of the St. Lawrence, and Georgian Bay are favourite maskinongé waters. This giant of the pike family is trolled for, as is the pike, which it very much exceeds, however, in its powers of resistance and in the extent of its runs when hooked.

It is not surprising that such a magnificent stretch of inland waters as that possessed by the Canadians should have proved a great incentive to aquatic sports. Yachting,

canoeing, and boating are favourite pastimes. Toronto may fairly claim to be the headquarters of these sports, its fine lake-frontage affording special facilities for regattas. Here are the headquarters of the Royal Canadian Yacht Club, and of a canoe and several rowing clubs, while in the winter ice-boating is practised. Edward Hanlan, of Toronto, and Jacob Gaudaur, of Orillia, were both in their day champion scullers of the world.* The Royal Nova Scotia Yacht Squadron has its headquarters at Halifax, and several yachting and rowing races are held there during the season. The Royal St. Lawrence Yacht Club of Montreal has its headquarters at Dorval on Lake St. Louis, where yachting and canoeing contests are annually held. There are also yacht and boat clubs at Quebec, Ottawa, and other places.

It is claimed that Canadian Indians built the first birch bark canoes, and two other types of this beautiful craft—namely, the Gaspé and the Peterboro' canoes—take their names from the Canadian towns where they were first made. The birch bark and the modern canvas canoes, the latter built upon the model of the birch bark, are mostly employed by the Northern Indians and the sportsmen whom they guide upon Canadian lakes and rivers. They are so light that they are carried upon the shoulders from one lake or river to another, over intervening portages. It is a thrilling sensation to shoot the rapids in one of these frail craft. Canoe-paddling is a favourite pastime with Canadians.

Amongst distinctively Canadian games, lacrosse in summer and hockey in winter must be specially mentioned. The former, originally an Indian pastime, has been brought to the attention of the British public by visiting Canadian teams of players. It is the national

* In 1904 Louis F. Scholes, of Toronto, won the famous Diamond Sculls at the Henley Regatta, defeating the two years' holder, F. S. Kelly, of Oxford. The victory was especially notable for the new record of 8 minutes 23 seconds set for the Henley course of 1 mile 550 yards.

game of Canada, and almost every small town and every public school and college has its club, while the cities each boast of several. A national association arranges the rules, dates, and locality of matches for the championships, which usually fluctuate between Montreal, Ottawa, and Toronto clubs. The only unpleasant feature of this game is the roughness by which it is sometimes marred.

Hockey on ice is played by seven men on each side, all of whom are, necessarily, good skaters. It combines, in a remarkable degree, continuity of movement, individuality of play, and open team work. It has a speed which no other game can approach, and the matches, which are played in covered rinks, usually attract thousands of spectators. These matches and the rules governing them are controlled by a national association, consisting of representatives from the different clubs interested. The expertness of Canadian skaters makes a well-contested match an extremely graceful and interesting sight.

Cricket excites very much less general interest in Canada than in either India or Australia, preference being given to the more distinctively Canadian sports. There are clubs, however, in Toronto, Montreal, Ottawa, Quebec, Winnipeg, Victoria, and St. John; while Halifax turns out a strong team, largely recruited from the garrison.

Golf is extremely popular all over the Dominion, many cities possessing ladies' as well as men's clubs. Annual matches are played between the clubs of different cities, and individual championships have also been established. Some of the Canadian clubs possess almost unexcelled links, especially that at Quebec, which was founded over thirty years ago, and which plays over part of the very uneven and picturesque battle-field of the Plains of Abraham. The fashionable watering-place of Murray Bay also boasts very admirable links. The St. Andrews rules are generally followed. It is worthy of note that the golf championship of America was won last year (1904) by a Canadian, Mr. George S. Lyon, of Toronto.

Football flourishes in the Dominion, all the principal

cities having their clubs. Return championship matches are annually played for both provincial and Dominion honours, and for those of senior, intermediate, and junior rank. The Rugby Union rules are generally adopted.

The winter pastimes of the Canadian people are those which furnish the greatest measure of enjoyment, and are most typical of the country. Of these the most interesting are snow-shoeing, skating, tobogganing, curling, and skeeing.

Snow-shoeing, though not quite so easy as it looks, is by no means a difficult art to acquire. Most Canadian towns and cities boast several snow-shoe clubs, each with its distinctive costume of blanket coat and knickerbockers, and gaily coloured tuques and stockings. Many of them have bugle bands of their own, and their tramps on moonlight nights across the moor, in Indian file, singing their rousing club songs and choruses, interspersed with the odd *chansons* of French Canada, afford a spectacle which can scarcely be seen in any other country.

Skating is not only practised in the open air, but almost every Canadian town has a covered skating-rink, and in the cities there are sometimes several. The fancy dress carnival displays by the skaters are exceedingly spectacular, and many Canadian ladies as well as gentlemen are as much at home upon their skates in the mazes of the waltz and the various movements of quadrilles and lancers, as they are upon the well-waxed floor of the ball-room.

Tobogganing is practised both upon the natural hills and also upon artificial slides erected for the purpose. The Canadian toboggan is from four to eight feet long, and from sixteen to twenty-four inches wide, usually well cushioned, and accommodates from one to six persons. It is turned up in front, and presents the whole of its flat under-service to the snow. Good steering is the secret of success in tobogganing. The steerer lies upon one side at the rear of the toboggan, and directs its course with the toe of one foot, trailing it behind upon the snow.

It is remarkable how responsive the toboggan is to the slightest effort of the steerer, many riders being able to steer by merely swaying the leg from side to side without touching the frozen covering of the slide at all.

Curling reaches its highest perfection in Canada, as the visiting Scotch team of the early part of 1903 admitted. In Quebec and Eastern Ontario, metal 'stones' are used instead of the granite ones commonly employed in Scotland. Nearly all the Canadian rinks are in covered buildings, and as the ice is very carefully looked after, a nicety of play is reached that proves a revelation to old-fashioned curlers accustomed to the rough-and-ready style of the open-air game. The Royal Caledonian Curling Club rules are observed.

Mountain-climbers will probably find more opportunities for first ascents in the Rocky Mountain district of Canada than in any other part of the world. Some of the more notable of recent explorations in these mountains were made in 1901 by Mr. Edward Whymper, the noted mountaineer who first scaled the Matterhorn, and who writes: 'From any of the heights of the Rockies the outlook is a magnificent one. The vast ranges are appalling in their immensity and grandeur, for here are fifty or sixty Switzerlands rolled into one. The opportunities for mountain-climbing are in plenty, and while many mountain-peaks are doubtless inaccessible, there are lots of mountains yet to be ascended which will bring credit to their conquerors.' Some of the most difficult climbing work so far accomplished in America has been done in the Ottertail range, just west of Field, and as yet the most important peak of the group, Mount Goodsir, remains unconquered. The other peaks of this range, Mount Vaux and the Chancellor, afford some splendid climbing both rock and snow. Here, as at other points in the mountains, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company has stationed a competent corps of Swiss guides, who are at the disposal of tourists and mountain-climbers. 'Trolltinderne,' one of the most

forbidding peaks of the Yoho valley, and declared by Mr. Habel to be inaccessible, was successfully scaled by Mr. Whymper on August 21, 1901. Mount Assiniboine, the Canadian Matterhorn, for many years considered impregnable, was conquered by James Outram in 1902. Mount Stephen, near Field, and Mount Donald, in the Selkirks, are both in the vicinity of 10,600 feet in height, but some of the highest peaks attain an elevation of fully 15,000 feet. The railway has an elevation of over 4000 feet at Mount Stephen, and it is possible to make the ascent of the remaining 6500 feet and return in one day.

W. Dwight Wilcox, F.R.G.S., has written a series of works on the Canadian Rockies, which were published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. A more recent work is 'Climbs and Explorations in the Canadian Rockies,' by Hugh E. M. Stutfield and J. Norman Collie, F.R.S. (1903, Longmans, Green & Co.). These last-mentioned explorers finally established the elevation of some of the secondary heights of the Rockies, determining that of Mount Murchison at 11,300 feet.

CHAPTER X

EDUCATION AND JOURNALISM

UNDER the Act of Confederation, education was left to the control of the individual provinces. Consequently we find a certain lack of uniformity in the various systems in regard to such matters as the qualifications demanded of teachers, the salaries paid to them, courses of study, classification, basis of grants, the provision making education compulsory, and so forth. In most essentials, however, the systems of the different provinces show much more uniformity than might be expected. Taking it broadly, the system which prevails in Canada is based primarily on the principle of free education, the funds being supplied by Government grants and local taxation, except in British Columbia and the North-West Territories, where the schools are supported wholly by the State. Some of the provinces make education compulsory for all children. In Ontario education is compulsory between the ages of eight and fourteen. In Nova Scotia attendance is compulsory for children between the ages of seven and twelve, but only for one hundred and twenty days in the year. New Brunswick, Quebec, Manitoba, and British Columbia have no compulsory law. In Prince Edward Island attendance is compulsory, but, as also in Ontario, the law is not strictly enforced.

The most complete and efficient of the systems of education in the various provinces is that adopted by Ontario. Here a uniform course of studies is provided

NEW GLASGOW, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

for all schools; text-books are uniform throughout the province, and in many cases are provided free (this is a matter decided by each school district); all public and high schools are in the hands of professionally trained teachers, the preparation and examination of whom are under provincial instead of local control; a common matriculation is provided for admission to all the universities of the province and the learned professions. The system, which aims to provide educational facilities to meet the needs of every section of the community, consists of: (1) Kindergarten; (2) Public and Separate Schools* (the latter for Roman Catholics, or Protestants where the population is largely Catholic); (3) High Schools or Collegiate Institutes; (4) the Provincial University (University of Toronto). Each of these divisions is independent in its own sphere, but all are under one central control, the Department of Education of the Province, presided over by a Minister of Education holding a seat in the Government. The constant aim is so to harmonise the several divisions as to provide a well-rounded, practical education, which will fit the youth of the province for any walk of life, professional or non-professional.

The average child enters the Kindergarten at four or five years of age, the Public School at six, the High School at fourteen, and is prepared to enter the University at eighteen. The university course, leading to B.A., covers four years. The present tendency is to prolong the period at both High School and University.

The schools of Ontario are governed by Boards of School Trustees, divided into High School, Public School, and Separate School Boards. In some cases the High School and Public School interests are consolidated in a common Board of Education. The first are appointed by the municipal council of the locality, and the members

* Including, in recent years, Continuation Classes, which are adjuncts to rural schools, providing a measure of secondary education where there are no high schools.

of the two latter are elected by the ratepayers—'Public School supporters' voting for the Public School Board, and 'Separate School supporters' for the Separate School Board. A similar system, with minor exceptions as to methods of appointment, exists in all the provinces. Separate Schools, however, only exist in Ontario, Quebec, and the North-West Territories. In Quebec the Public School is for the Roman Catholic majority, and the Separate School for the Protestant minority. In the North-West, as in Ontario, the Separate School is for the Roman Catholic minority. Up to a few years ago Manitoba also possessed a system of Separate Schools for Roman Catholics, but it was abolished, after a long and bitter fight, and all children are now taught in the same schools, provision being made by which the Roman Catholics, and any of the other denominations who desire it, may receive religious instruction after the regular schools hours from their own clergymen.

Education in the province of Quebec has an historical interest hardly possessed by that of the other provinces, as it has been co-existent almost with the entire history of the country. The first to give instruction in what now constitutes the province of Quebec were the Recollet Fathers, in 1616; while in 1632 the Jesuits commenced educational work amongst the Indians. The first girls' school in Canada was founded at the Ursuline Convent, Quebec, in 1639, and in 1663 Bishop Laval founded the Quebec Seminary, which has since developed into the University of Laval.

Under the Provincial Act at present in force the administration of education is vested in a Superintendent and Council, whilst the direct management of the schools in each municipality is entrusted to Boards of Commissioners for Public Schools and of Trustees for the Separate Schools.

The Public and Separate Schools of Quebec are divided into Elementary, Model, and High Schools, or Academies. The elementary school course extends over

four years; the model school course three years (four in Montreal). The academies prepare pupils for university matriculation. The kindergarten is not yet a part of the school system, but is provided by several of the boards in connexion with individual schools.

In both the Public and Separate Schools of Quebec, there is a marked disproportion between the salaries paid to women and men teachers, due, it is said, to the great preponderance of women teachers in the outlying districts, where the sparsely settled population cannot afford to keep a school open more than six or eight months of the year. In fact, the average salaries for both men and women teachers in Quebec are very low, some of the former being paid as low as $112 per annum, and several of the latter even less than $100.

A movement is on foot, both in Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and the other Eastern provinces of Canada, to adopt a system of district schools, such as have been found to work admirably in some sparsely settled districts of the United States. Under this system a number of weak local schools are consolidated into one strong district school, placed in some central locality, and it becomes possible to employ efficient, well-paid teachers, and increase the value of the educational system in many other ways. The children in the outlying parts of the district are carried to the school in 'buses, at the expense of the community. In Quebec the scheme is still in the air, but in Ontario and Nova Scotia it has already materialised. Early in September, 1903, a school embodying the principles of consolidation and transportation was opened at Middleton, N.S. This is in the nature of an experiment, and is intended to be but a portion of a comprehensive scheme, covering the entire Dominion. Behind the general scheme are two Canadians, both of whom have done a great deal, each in his own way, for education in the Dominion—Sir William Macdonald and Professor J. W. Robertson, the Commissioner of Agriculture and Dairying for Canada. Sir

William Macdonald provides the funds and Professor Robertson gives his time and the benefit of his experience to the scheme. The object is to improve the standard of rural education, especially in the direction of practical knowledge, and to this end it is proposed that the rural schools of the country should give instruction, not only in mechanical and domestic sciences, but also in the natural sciences, especially in the direction of agriculture and horticulture. It at once became apparent that this could only be effectively managed by means of centralised schools. The scheme, as outlined by Sir William Macdonald and Professor Robertson, includes the establishment of a training school in connexion with the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, Ontario; * the establishment and maintenance for three years in each of the five Eastern provinces, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, of a group of schools having school gardens and instruction in Nature study, and also the establishment and maintenance for three years in each of these provinces of a consolidated school, with school garden and departments of manual training and domestic economy.

By an Act of the Nova Scotia Legislature, passed at its last session, eight school sections were combined in the new Middleton consolidated school section. Each individual section retains its identity and elects a school board, which through a secretary collects the school taxes as formerly. In addition, there is a consolidated board, composed of three members for Middleton and one for each of the other sections. This board has full

* The Macdonald Institute at Guelph ($150,000) has been in operation for some months. It will be devoted for a few years to training teachers of Canada in the new education, and after the new methods are fairly incorporated in the school systems of the provinces, this institute will become an organic part of the Guelph Agricultural College, and will provide a thoroughly scientific 'home and country-life' training for farmers' daughters. The Macdonald Consolidated Public School at Guelph is already completed.

control of the central school, and arranges for the transportation of the children living outside of Middleton section, by means of a system of vans or 'buses. The children are carried from their homes, four, five, or six miles distant, to the central school, and back again after school hours. The school staff consists of a principal, vice-principal, six teachers, and two instructors in mechanical science and domestic science. The entire staff have taken special courses at Chicago, Ithica, and New York preparatory to their work at Middleton. It is expected that the other four consolidated schools, provided for by the Macdonald scheme, will be opened next summer.

From the latest reports received, it appears that the consolidated school at Middleton has been a conspicuous success. Seven small rural schools have been closed, and the big consolidated school takes their places. The attendance has already increased 70 per cent. In another section of Nova Scotia, less wealthy, a consolidated school has also been built, and the attendance increased more than 200 per cent. The Middleton consolidated school, in the opinion of Professor Robertson, is the best rural school in the world. It is anticipated that within less than five years there will be one hundred consolidated schools in various parts of Canada. Each would send out annually from five to ten pupils, who would teach. These 500 to 1000 teachers would exert a marked influence upon the community. The object of all these new features of the educational system in Canada is primarily to train the young to use their faculties to the best possible advantage, and lift the whole people to a broader national life.

Sir William Macdonald has in another way come forward in the interests of practical education. He has decided to establish, entirely at his own expense, an agricultural college at Ste. Anne de Bellevue, in the province of Quebec, and has secured the services of Professor Robertson as principal. As Professor Robertson's

reputation as an authority in every department of scientific and practical agriculture is not merely national but world-wide, and he is to have *carte blanche* in the organisation and administration of the college, it can hardly fail to be of the utmost benefit to the agricultural interests of the country. The new college will be planned to a certain extent upon the successful Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, but will embody many new and broader features, one of the most important of which will be a big research department. The buildings and their equipment will be as substantial and complete as money will buy. There will be a large department of farms, and upon these a large number of apprentices will be put, who will be taught both the theory and practice of scientific agriculture, and given an opportunity of practising what they have learnt, under actual conditions. The importance of this latest example of Sir William Macdonald's public spirit lies not merely in the fact that the college at Ste. Anne de Bellevue will in itself be of incalculable benefit, but its success will almost certainly lead to the establishment of similar colleges, at the public expense, in all the provinces of the Dominion.

The school systems of the Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island are practically alike. Each system is under the control of a Superintendent of Education, with several School Inspectors. The schools are divided into three grades—Primary Schools, Grammar Schools, and High Schools. The course of instruction covers about twelve years.

Elementary education is entirely free in Manitoba, and only small fees are charged in the high schools and colleges. The school course covers about eleven years, eight of which are in the elementary school, three in the high school or collegiate institute. At the latter students are prepared for college matriculation.

The school system of British Columbia is under the control of a Superintendent of Education, and a Council of Public Instruction. The division of schools here, as

RANCHING IN WESTERN CANADA.

in Manitoba and the North-West Territories, is based on that of Ontario, though there are no kindergartens.

In the North-West the schools are under the control of a Council of Public Instruction. Two sections of land (1280 acres) in each township are reserved and held in trust by the Dominion Government as school lands for aiding and promoting education in the territories. This means an endowment of about 11,000,000 acres, which, as the country becomes more settled and the value of land increases, will become an extremely important asset.

One of the difficulties that the North-West Government has to contend with, in connexion with its school system, is the presence of a large foreign element, Doukhobors, Galicians, etc., who are for the most part settled in distinct colonies, and are wedded to their own customs, educational and otherwise. It is most important, of course, that the children of these immigrants should be brought into the schools, as only in this way can these communities be assimilated and made an integral part of the nation.

A few years ago Sir William Macdonald, who had already given large sums to McGill University, offered to assume the entire expense for a period of three years of a series of manual training classes. Educators in both Ontario and Nova Scotia took kindly to the idea, and the result was the creation of what was known as the Macdonald Fund. Instructors in manual training were brought from England, and classes were opened at Ottawa, Toronto, and several other Ontario towns, as well as at Truro, Nova Scotia. At the conclusion of the period covered by the gift, the value of manual training had become so apparent that the Department of Education of Ontario decided to carry on the work as part of the public school system of the province. The former director of the Macdonald Manual Training Schools was accordingly appointed Inspector of Technical Education for Ontario, his work covering not only manual training, but also household science and art, drawing, etc.

The natural but inaccurate inference has been drawn from this that manual training and technical education are practically the same thing, but this is not so. The single aim of the latter is to provide practical and scientific training in the industrial arts. Manual training, on the other hand, while an excellent preparation for technical education, is primarily designed to develop the mental and moral powers of the scholars; to teach them, in a very practical way, the vital importance of accuracy, conscientiousness, and truth. At the same time it undoubtedly develops their powers of observation, and teaches them to use both eyes and hands unerringly.

There are at present eighteen manual training schools in Ontario. The course covers three years, instruction being given in freehand and mechanical drawing, and theoretical and practical woodwork. Manual training rooms have been opened in the various centres, equipped with benches, tools, etc. Provision has also been made for training teachers in manual training, and already two teachers trained in Ontario have been employed in British Columbia, and one in New Brunswick. Others who commenced their work in the Ontario training schools are now teaching in Calgary, Regina, and Quebec.*

Household or domestic science fills somewhat the same place in the education of girls that manual training does in that of boys, although the object here is perhaps more directly utilitarian. At Hamilton the Ontario

* In an address before the Canadian Club of Ottawa, in the autumn of 1904, Professor Robertson referred appreciatively to the practical results which had already followed the establishment of manual training in the public schools of Canada. 'Manual training,' he said, 'took the boy away from books to things. It corrected the boy's process of thinking, because it showed him that efforts misapplied resulted in failures. In introducing the work they had brought in twenty-seven teachers from England and put them to work. At first there were seven thousand pupils taking the course. That number had now increased to twenty thousand. The work could not go back. It had become an integral and vital part of the national school system.'

PUBLIC GARDENS, HALIFAX, NOVA SCOTIA.

Normal College of Domestic Science and Art was opened three years ago, and has proved eminently successful. Courses are given in domestic science, including physics, chemistry, dietetics, food, economics, etc., and domestic art, including costume designing, millinery, dressmaking, etc. This is for the training of teachers. Classes have been established in connexion with many of the public and model schools. In Nova Scotia domestic science has also taken firm root in the public schools. Eighty per cent. of the girls in the Halifax schools are taught sewing.

The School of Practical Science at Toronto is at present the only important institution in the Dominion devoted exclusively to the promotion of technical education. Regular courses are given in civil engineering, mining engineering, mechanical engineering, architecture, and analytical and applied chemistry. But for higher technical training the McGill Science Departments are much better equipped, and probably lead the universities of the world in this respect.

An effort is being made to promote technical instruction in the various trades and industries, but it has not yet taken definite shape. Something of the sort has been accomplished in the schools of Ontario and the North-West Territories, where instruction is given in the scientific principles of agriculture, but this agricultural education is not yet upon a sufficiently practical basis to be of much real benefit.

In Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick, school gardens have been established through the liberality of Sir William Macdonald. A group of five rural schools in each province has been chosen and placed under the care of a travelling instructor, who directs and supervises the work done by the pupils in the garden established at each school with very gratifying educational and practical results.

Night schools exist, under provincial control, in most of the larger cities of Canada, where elementary instruction

is provided in the three R's, grammar, bookkeeping, etc.; but the increasing efficiency of the various public school systems, and the favourable conditions of labour throughout the country, render night schools comparatively unnecessary, and their numbers are steadily declining, especially in Toronto.

Schools for the deaf, dumb, and blind exist in nearly all the provinces, where instruction is given in all the elementary subjects. Reading is taught the blind by means of raised type, and writing by the aid of a grooved card. Boys are taught chair- and basket-making, carpentry, shoemaking, cabinet-work, type-setting (for the deaf and dumb), etc.; and the girls, sewing, dressmaking, and domestic science.

There are in Canada, altogether, over eighteen thousand public schools, with one million pupils, taught by twenty-seven thousand teachers—not a bad educational showing for a population of five and a half millions.

There are altogether seventeen institutions in Canada ranking as universities and holding degree-conferring powers, and over fifty colleges. Some of the universities include several affiliated colleges; others are only small provincial colleges. The oldest of the Canadian colleges is King's College, Windsor, N.S., founded in 1790. King's College counts among its *alumni* many men whose names are written upon the pages of Canadian history and literature, not the least of whom was Judge Haliburton ('Sam Slick'). The University of New Brunswick ranks next in age to King's, having been founded in 1800. McGill University was established twenty-one years later. The other Canadian colleges are of more recent date.

McGill and Toronto are by all odds the most important of Canadian universities.* In each case they include

* In the spirit of university life and the influence of their ideals they do not surpass Queen's. In numbers and equipment Toronto excels Queen's. In science equipment McGill excels Queen's. But it is a notable fact, not well known, that Queen's University has more *matriculated* students in her arts department than any other

a number of affiliated colleges, and several distinct faculties. McGill has a staff of one hundred and sixty-four professors, lecturers, teachers, and demonstrators. Degrees are conferred in arts, laws, medicine, science, and engineering, and, through some of the affiliated colleges, in theology. The University of Toronto possesses teaching faculties in arts, law, and medicine. Twelve colleges, in addition to University College, are now affiliated with the university. Within a short time several others will be added when the contemplated federation of Trinity University and Toronto becomes an accomplished fact. This will make the University of Toronto one of the strongest, as it is already one of the best, educational institutions in America.

Queen's University, Kingston, is one of the most energetic and successful of Canadian colleges. Dalhousie and Acadia Universities are the most important institutions in the Maritime Provinces, outside of those already mentioned. The University of Manitoba is the only degree-conferring college in the West.

Laval University, the leading French college of Canada, although the seminary from which it developed was founded as long ago as 1663, was only created a university in 1852. Affiliated with Laval are a score or more of the classical colleges or seminaries of Quebec.

Canadian university. Toronto University is supported by the Ontario Government; McGill University by the proceeds of various endowments. McGill has been exceptionally fortunate in its friends. Endowed originally by the public-spirited Montreal merchant whose name it bears, it has since been the subject of many generous gifts from other citizens of Montreal. Lord Strathcona, the present Chancellor of the University, whose generosity has been exhibited in so many directions, both in Canada and England, has given about two million dollars to McGill. Mr. and Mrs. Peter Redpath presented the splendid museum and the university library building, which bears their name, endowed the chair of Pure Mathematics, and made many other minor gifts, amounting in all to half a million dollars. Sir William Macdonald's munificence has even gone beyond what has already been mentioned, he having given up to the present time three and a half millions to McGill.

In connexion with several of the Canadian universities there exist preparatory schools, modelled upon the famous public schools of England. Upper Canada College, of which Dr. Parkin (now in charge of the Rhodes scholarships) was until lately principal, is the most important of these schools. Others are Trinity College School at Port Hope; Bishop's College School, Lennoxville; and the Collegiate School for Boys, Windsor, N.S. It might here be stated, as a proof of the high reputation enjoyed by Canadian universities abroad, that over three hundred of their graduates hold chairs, at the present moment, in American universities. Quite recently, too, a graduate of McGill University (Dr. William Osler) has been appointed to an important professorship in the University of Oxford.

The importance of the public library as a factor in the educational life of a community is only beginning to be recognised in Canada. Nevertheless, one province, Ontario, possesses an extensive system of small town and village libraries—about four hundred altogether—under Government inspection and control, and partially supported by annual grants from the provincial treasury. Most of these small libraries were originally mechanics' institutes, but by a provincial statute they were changed, in 1895, to public libraries. The libraries are divided into free libraries and public libraries, the former being controlled by the municipal councils of cities, towns, or villages, and absolutely free to the public, while the latter are still partially supported by the payment of fees or subscriptions. The largest and best of the Ontario public libraries is that at Toronto, which consists of a central reference and circulating library, with five branches in different parts of the city. There are one hundred and twenty thousand volumes in the Toronto public library. Mr. Andrew Carnegie has recently given $350,000 towards the construction of a new central library and three branches. Including the educational and special libraries, there are about four hundred and thirty libraries in Ontario, containing over a million volumes. This

does not include the libraries of the high schools and those now being established generally in the public schools throughout the province, toward which special legislative grants are also given.

Outside the province of Ontario, there are less than a dozen municipal free libraries in the Dominion. There are two in Nova Scotia, at Halifax and Sydney; one at St. John, New Brunswick; one at Winnipeg; one at Westmount, in Quebec; and three in British Columbia, at Victoria, Vancouver, and New Westminster. Through the munificence of Mr. Carnegie, however, a number of new public libraries are being established in different Canadian cities, one of the largest and most complete of which will be the Ottawa public library.

In Montreal there are a number of public libraries, more or less free to the public, but none supported and controlled by the municipality. The Fraser Institute contains about 35,000 books; the Jesuits' Free Library, 13,000; the Mechanics' Institute, 15,000; and the Bibliothèque Paroissiale de Nôtre Dame, 18,000.

The largest and most valuable collection of books in Canada is that contained in the library of Parliament at Ottawa—a quarter of a million volumes, rich in Canadian history and constitutional and political literature. The books are housed in one of the most beautiful and graceful library buildings in the world.

All the Canadian colleges possess fairly large libraries, the most valuable of which, from an historical point of view, are those of McGill University, Montreal (100,000 volumes), and of Laval University, Quebec (110,000 volumes), both of which include large collections of early Canadian manuscripts.

An efficient and widespread system of free public schools has had much to do with moulding the character of the Canadian people. Another influence of almost equal importance has been the existence of the Press. From its earliest beginnings, one hundred and fifty years ago, the Canadian newspaper has on the whole stood for

what is best in public and private life. Its editors being human, it has inevitably not always been free from human weaknesses. Its tone has, in the earlier days, been sometimes characterised by bitter partisanship and furious invective. Its literary quality has in some cases been decidedly mediocre. But its weaknesses have been manly weaknesses. It has never been corrupt or servile; and its moral tone has always been pure. It has fought the battles of human freedom. Time and again Canadian newspapers have denounced the evils of irresponsible government; and their editors have suffered fine and imprisonment in consequence. It has been very largely instrumental in securing for Canada two of the most vital reforms of modern times—the freedom of the Press and representative government. It has generally led, rather than been led by, public opinion. It has counted among its editors many of the leading Canadian statesmen of the nineteenth century.

Halifax is entitled to the honour of having produced the first Canadian newspaper. The printing press, which Governor Cornwallis had overlooked in his otherwise exhaustive outfit for founding the future city, was supplied three years later by one Bartholomew Green, son of the enterprising printer of the same name who had printed the *Boston News Letter*, the first paper issued in America. The *Halifax Gazette*, the first issue of which appeared on March 28, 1752, was a little two-page sheet, 9 by 15 inches, inclusive of the margin. Only one incomplete file is known to exist, and this is in the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society at Boston. The *Halifax Gazette*, according to its original contract, was to be published from week to week, and, curiously enough, though many Canadian newspapers have been born and died since, the first newspaper published in British North America still continues its weekly appearance, being now known as the *Nova Scotia Royal Gazette*, published by the Provincial Government. The *Gazette* is consequently the oldest living newspaper in America.

The first number revealed very few of the characteristics of what we now regard as modern journalism. Local news was not then regarded as of sufficient importance for publication. Editorials were devoted to abstract and often abstruse questions, rather than to topics of current interest. European news was four or five months old. Some of the advertisements were very curious. One ran: 'Reading school for children kept, and gold and silver lace cleaned; and all sorts of silk, also mournings stiffened, by Elizabeth Render, near Rev. Mr. Tully's new house on Barrington street.' Another advertisement suggests even more distinctly the remoteness of the period: 'To be sold by Joshua Mauger at Major Lockman's store in Halifax, several negro slaves as follows: A woman aged 35, two boys aged 12 and 13 respectively, two of 18, and a man aged 30.'

The early history of Canadian journalism is full of interest, if one had time to go into it. One of the first victories in the long battle for the freedom of the Press was won by a young Nova Scotian who afterwards became one of the greatest and most eloquent of Canadian statesmen—Joseph Howe. Howe had established the *Nova Scotian* in 1828, and in its columns he fearlessly attacked the ruling powers. Having charged the Halifax authorities with corruption, he was at once arrested for libel. Arthur F. Wallis, editor of the *Toronto Mail and Empire*, tells the story in his 'Historical Sketch of Canadian Journalism'—

'The lawyers to whom Mr. Howe appealed for assistance in his defence unanimously declared he had no case and that he had to select either abject apology or the gaol. He determined, however, to defend himself, and with borrowed law books he studied the law of libel and prepared for the trial an argument which he hoped would result in his acquittal. His speech in court in his own behalf was his first public address. It occupied six and a half hours in delivery, and was a masterpiece of eloquence and elegance. It cast aside the defensive

position, and was distinctly aggressive, in that it renewed the assaults upon the civic administration and appealed to the jury to stand by liberty of discussion in the public interests. An able Attorney-General replied, and a judge, not enamoured of the Press, made a charge distinctly against the accused. But, after deliberating just ten minutes, the jury acquitted Mr. Howe, and the verdict was received with popular rejoicings.' *

The first newspaper published in New Brunswick was the *Morning News*, started in St. John in 1839, by George E. Fenety, afterwards Queen's printer for the province. The *News* was remarkable as having been the first penny newspaper in the British Empire, and the third in America.

Quebec ran Halifax a close second for the honour of having published the first newspaper, the first number of the *Quebec Gazette* having been issued on June 21, 1764. This paper is remarkable as having been published in both English and French, a column of English and a column of French being on each page, of which there were four. In the first number, among the London news, mention is made of 'a scheme of taxation of our American Colonies'—that momentous scheme which led up to the Revolution of 1776. The *Quebec Gazette*, like its Halifax namesake, and, in fact, like most of the earliest Canadian newspapers, was long-lived. It only ceased publication a few years ago, and was one of the few newspapers in the world able to print a centennial issue, which it did in 1864, reproducing its first number.

The *Montreal Gazette* (most of the early newspapers were called 'Gazettes') was first published in 1778, and has been issued continuously down to the present day. It is now one of the most influential of Canadian newspapers, one of its principal editorial writers being John Reade, a singularly well-informed journalist. Curiously enough, this eminently dignified supporter of the British

* See also 'Sketch of Joseph Howe,' by the late Fennings Taylor, in the 'Canadian Portrait Gallery,' and Longley's 'Life of Howe,' published in 1904.

connexion was originally conceived as a weapon for completing the conquest of Canada by the United States. When the Americans took possession of Montreal, in 1776, they conceived the brilliant idea of establishing a newspaper, to disseminate among the French-Canadians the manifold advantages that would accrue to them from annexation to the neighbouring Republic. Of the three commissioners sent by Congress to carry out this novel scheme, one was Benjamin Franklin. They brought a complete printing plant with them, and a Frenchman named Joseph Fleury de Mesplet, who was to set up the matter which Franklin wrote. The scheme fell through, but Mesplet remained in Montreal, and two years later issued the first number of the *Gazette du Commerce et Littéraire pour la Ville et District de Montreal.* The paper was at first published entirely in French. Ten years after its establishment it was printed in English and French, owing to the increase of the English element in Montreal. Some years afterwards it became entirely English.

The first Canadian newspaper to adopt anything like modern methods was the *Quebec Mercury*, founded by Thomas Cary, an Englishman, born near Bristol in 1751. The *Mercury* was far in advance of its times in that it gave particular attention to local affairs, which it treated with an insight, forcefulness, and humour seldom equalled even in these days.

The first purely French-Canadian newspaper, published and edited by French-Canadians for French-Canadian readers, was *Le Canadien*, which, after an existence of ninety years, expired in Montreal in 1896. *Le Canadien* was continually in hot water with the authorities. Its editors were time and again imprisoned for attacking the Government, and the plant broken up, only to be revived again by equally fearless successors. One of its editors, Dr. François Blanchet, introduced the first Education Bill passed in Lower Canada (now Quebec).

Louis Roy, a French-Canadian, printed the first

newspaper in Upper Canada (now Ontario)—the *Upper Canada Gazette or American Oracle*, issued at Newark (now Niagara) in 1793. Niagara was at that time the capital of the youthful province, and when the capital was moved to York (afterwards Toronto), the *Gazette* moved with it.

These were days before the liberty of the Press had yet been acknowledged, and editors criticised the authorities at their peril. We read, for instance, that one Barnabas Ferguson, editor of the *Niagara Spectator*, was condemned 'for a libel on the Government' to 'eighteen months in jail; to stand in the pillory once during his confinement; to pay a fine of £50, and remain in prison till paid; and on his liberation to find security for good conduct for seven years, himself in £500 and two sureties of £250 each.'

The *Advocate*, first published in 1824, is chiefly memorable as having been the vehicle through which William Lyon Mackenzie, afterwards leader of the Rebellion in Upper Canada, attacked with tireless energy, and an amazing command of picturesque invective, the Government of the day.

At the present time there are 1250 newspapers and periodicals in the Dominion, 117 of which are dailies, and the remainder semi-weeklies, weeklies, etc. Of the entire number, Ontario is credited with 677 and Quebec with 195. The three Maritime Provinces have 158, and the West 220. Ontario has one periodical for every 3200 of her population; Quebec, one for every 8355; Manitoba, one for every 2570; Nova Scotia, one for every 5280; New Brunswick, one for every 6247; Prince Edward Island, one for every 5736; and British Columbia, one for every 3853. It thus appears that Manitoba has a larger number of newspapers *per capita* than any of the older provinces.

Of all Canadian newspapers, probably the most influential at home and the best known abroad is the *Toronto Globe*, whose history began with the year 1844. Its first and most famous editor, the Hon. George Brown,

the eminent Liberal statesman, was one of the first to replace the somewhat narrow provincial outlook of the earlier journalism by one that was more broadly national. One of his chief leader writers for some years was another famous Canadian statesman, the Hon. William Macdougall, C.B., like Mr. Brown, one of the 'Fathers of Confederation.' At present the Rev. J. A. MacDonald is managing editor, with John A. Ewan as principal leader-writer.

The *Toronto Mail and Empire*, the *Toronto Daily Telegram*, and the *Toronto News*—the latter now edited by J. S. Willison, for some years previously editor-in-chief of the *Globe*—are also newspapers of the same influential class. In Montreal the *Gazette*, *Herald*, *Star*, and *Witness* stand for all that is best in Canadian journalism. Its editors are, and have been in the past, men of education, ability, and wide public spirit, who have used the great power of the Press in the best interests of the country. The *Ottawa Citizen*, *Free Press*, *Journal*, and *Le Temps* represent journalism in the capital. The *Halifax Herald* and *Chronicle* and the *St. John Telegraph*, *Globe*, and *Sun* are equally representative of the Press of the Maritime Provinces. The great West counts such ably-edited newspapers as the *Winnipeg Free Press*, *Vancouver Province* and *World* and *Victoria Times*. British and American newspapers are represented in Canada generally by Canadian correspondents. Men of the calibre of Frederick Cook, correspondent of the *Times*, and E. W. Thomson, of the *Boston Transcript* (known also as the author of 'Old Man Savarin'), compare favourably with the best type of journalists in the older lands.

La Presse (edited by C. A. Dansereau), *La Patrie* (edited by the Hon. J. I. Tarte), and *Le Canada* (edited by Godfrey Langlois), of Montreal, and *Le Soleil* (until lately edited by Ernest Pacaud) of Quebec, represent the highest development in French-Canadian journalism. In Quebec, even more than in the English-speaking provinces, journalism and politics have been closely interwoven.

Most of the political leaders of the province, Liberal and Conservative, Dominion and Provincial, have been more or less directly connected with the Press; and the connexion has proved mutually advantageous. The practical experience of men and public questions gained in the political arena has been of as much benefit to the editorial room as the peculiarly encyclopædic outlook of the latter has been of service when brought back into politics.

While most Canadian newspapers are inevitably confined to a comparatively small circulation, those of the larger cities will even in this respect compare not unfavourably with British and American newspapers. *La Presse* has an actual daily circulation of about sixty-eight thousand copies, with a weekly circulation of thirty-six thousand. The *Montreal Star* has a daily circulation of fifty-seven and a half thousand, and a weekly circulation of one hundred and eighteen thousand. The weekly circulation, it may be explained, does not refer to the same issues, but to distinct weekly editions. *Le Soleil* has a daily circulation of ten thousand; the *Toronto Globe* one of forty-seven thousand; and the *Mail and Empire* one of forty-one thousand. The chief society paper of Canada is *Saturday Night*, published at Toronto, and ably edited by E. E. Sheppard. A meritorious family periodical, *Le Journal de Françoise*, is conducted, at Montreal, by Miss Robertine Barry. A very excellent illustrated monthly publication—*Researches of British North America*, purporting to be a review of the developed and undeveloped wealth of Canada, including Newfoundland—is issued in the same city.

It may not be out of place to mention here that some years ago Sir Sandford Fleming offered a prize of $250 for an essay on the subject: 'How can Canadian universities best benefit the profession of journalism as a means of moulding and elevating public opinion?' The prize was divided between A. H. U. Colquhoun, B.A. (McGill), one of the editors of the *Toronto News*, and William Houston, M.A. (Toronto), formerly of the

MONTREAL, FROM MOUNT ROYAL.

Toronto Globe. These essays, with others sent in on the same occasion, have now been published, and embody a valuable collection of ideas on the subject. Mr. Colquhoun, in his essay, points out that journalism is, strictly speaking, not a profession.

One of the most important developments in recent Canadian journalism is the establishment, early in 1903, of the Canadian Associated Press, towards which the Dominion Parliament made a substantial vote. For years past much irritation had been felt in Canada on account of the exceedingly biassed quality of the cable news furnished to Canadian newspapers by certain American Press Agencies, and this finally culminated in the establishment of the Canadian Associated Press, whose correspondents send reliable cable news direct from London to the various subscribing Canadian newspapers.

The editor of the *Kingston Whig*, Edward J. B. Pense, M.L.A., an admirable example of the best type of Canadian journalist, has summed up the character and position of the Canadian Press in these significant words—

'Personality and bitterness, that warp men's natures and betray the aboriginal savage, have almost disappeared; Canada has not advanced as a nation more quickly than the Press has done in realising its mission. Its loyalty is unquestioned, nay, unmarred; its moral tone is excellent; its sensational side much more repressed than in the great Republic, despite many examples of spicy journalism luring publishers on to ragged endeavour. It is so law-abiding that a prosecution by the Crown officers is a rarity. Canadian journals are household journals, free visitors by right of existence to homes and firesides. This confidence increases their value to the public reader and advertiser, when linked with moderation in politics. No longer is the average newspaper so rancorous and prejudiced that only one party reads it. It reaches all classes, and the people hear both sides of a question, leading to a modified partyism and to a leavening, in some measure, of the great political mass.'

CHAPTER XI

LITERATURE AND ART

Two distinct literatures exist in Canada, side by side, sprung from two distinct parent sources; one the child of that splendid fruit of genius and brain power known as English literature; and the other the equally legitimate offspring of the literature of France. Each, too, reveals qualities of originality and native strength, marking it as something more than merely imitative of Old World standards. Canadian literature, both French and English, is redolent of the soil; filled with the bracing optimism of the young Dominion. In history, poetry, fiction, biography, as well as in both theoretical and applied science, many books have been written in the past, and are still being written, by native-born Canadians, which would do no discredit to older and more experienced countries.

As in all Colonial literatures, that of Canada consists, in its first stages, almost entirely of the published narratives of voyages of discovery, explorations, descriptions of the aborigines, their manners and customs, missionary enterprises, diaries of fur traders, etc. Later, when the country became more settled, and men found time and inclination for intellectual pursuits, books were written and published which were more entitled to rank as true literature. The memorable facts of early Canadian history, as well as the lives of pioneer statesmen and others who had to do with the laying of the country's foundations, were

preserved, by more or less competent hands, for the benefit of future generations. The romantic incidents of the country's past (for young communities move fast, and what would be but yesterday in older lands is ancient history here) were made the basis of many romances and poems, crude and unpolished no doubt, many of them, but sincere and full of a certain vigour and freshness of treatment, not without charm even in these days.

In Thomas Chandler Haliburton—better known as 'Sam Slick'—Canada produced at least one man whose fame has extended beyond the country and time which gave him birth. Haliburton, like many other famous men, looked upon that talent by which he is chiefly remembered as a means of diversion, or at best a weapon by which he might drive home those lessons of Colonial self-respect and energy which he strove to impress upon his fellow-countrymen in Nova Scotia. He was throughout his life a man of affairs, and whether as a Nova Scotian judge, or a member of the British House of Commons, his one aim was to advance the interests of his native land.

Artemus Ward pronounced him to be the 'father of the American school of humour,' and it is on that rare quality that his fame rests. Haliburton was, however, not only a genuine humorist—one whose humour never became forced, and whose brilliant satire was absolutely free from that vitriolic quality which mars the work of so many writers—but he also possessed many of the qualities which belong to the true novelist. His skill in character-drawing has rarely been excelled in America, and his dialogue and graphic description are qualities only slightly less marked. His books, 'The Clockmaker,' 'The Letter-Bag of the Great Western,' 'The Attaché,' 'Wise Saws and Modern Instances,' 'Nature and Human Nature,' and 'The Old Judge,' have gone through many editions, both in England and America, and some have been translated into both French and German, with the same conspicuous loss of humour which 'Mark Twain'

bewailed so amusingly in the case of his own books. Not less gifted than his distinguished father was the late Robert Grant Haliburton, author of works on archæology, economics, and history of acknowledged merit. Another member of the family, Lord Haliburton, is also a writer of note, chiefly on military subjects.

It would be quite inappropriate to the character and scope of this book to attempt to review the works of even the more prominent of the earlier Canadian writers. One other may, however, be mentioned—also a native of the Maritime Provinces. James De Mille was a man of diversified gifts. He filled successively the chairs of Classics at Acadia College and History at Dalhousie, Halifax. He was the author of some twenty or thirty novels and tales, most of them published anonymously. Among the best were 'The Dodge Club,' 'Helena's Household,' 'Cord and Creece,' 'The Cryptogram,' and 'The Strange Manuscript found in a Copper Cylinder,' the last a posthumous novel. 'The Dodge Club' was published in 1869, some months before the appearance of 'Innocents Abroad.' It is a curious coincidence that two books, remarkably similar in treatment and style of humour, should have appeared the same year. Another equally curious coincidence is the fact that 'The Clockmaker' first appeared in 1835, some months ahead of 'Pickwick Papers,' and here, again, any one who has read the two books must have been struck with their marked resemblance both in plan and treatment. It would be absurd to suggest for an instant that either 'Mark Twain' or Dickens could have had the slightest occasion or temptation to pick other men's brains; but as it has actually been charged against both Haliburton and De Mille that they borrowed their ideas from 'Mark Twain' and Dickens, it is important to lay emphasis on the fact that in each case the Canadian book appeared first.

Canadian history has furnished many themes for Canadian novelists. One in particular, who for several years has been a notable figure in the Imperial House

of Commons—Sir Gilbert Parker—has done more than any other Canadian novelist to clothe the deeply romantic incidents of Canadian history in the fascinating garments of fiction. William Kirby's 'Chien d'Or,' dealing with the French period; John Talon-Lesperance's story of the American invasion of Canada in 1775–76, 'The Bastonnais;' Richardson's 'Wacousta,' a tale of Pontiac's war and the siege of Detroit, and the 'Canadian Brothers,' a vigorous romance of the war of 1812; Charles Roberts' 'Forge in the Forest' and 'A Sister to Evangeline,' both stories of Acadian days; McLennan and McIlwraith's 'Span o' Life;' McLennan's 'Spanish John' and 'In Old France and New;' Lighthall's 'The False Chevalier;' Mrs. Guy Carlton Jones' 'Corduroy Road,' and other tales; Miss Laut's admirable stories of pioneer days in the North-West and around Hudson's Bay; Mrs. James Sadleir's romances of the Irish immigration period—these are all good examples of Canadian historical novels, Canadian in theme, Canadian in treatment, and Canadian in authorship.

Mr. W. A. Fraser; Robert Barr; Rev. C. W. Gordon ('Ralph Connor'); Mrs. Cotes, of Calcutta, who began her literary career as Miss Sara Jeannette Duncan; Miss Jones, daughter of the Hon. A. G. Jones, who has made her mark in literature as well as in art; Mrs. Virna Sheard; Miss Marshall Saunders, whose animal stories have charmed thousands of households; Clive Phillipps-Wolley, Norman Duncan, Colin McKay, Edwin Sandys, E. V. Nott, W. A. Hickman, Mrs. Harrison (Seranus), Mr. Albert R. Carman, Mr. Edgar Maurice Smith, Miss Sadleir, and Miss Blanche Macdonell are also worthy of remembrance. They have all done good work.

Philippe Aubert de Gaspé is one of the most honoured names in French-Canadian literature. His 'Les Anciens Canadiens,' nominally a book of fiction, is a perfect storehouse of information on all that concerns the life of the people of French Canada in the time immediately preceding and following the capitulation of Quebec. De Gaspé,

who wrote this book in his old age, drew for his material upon the stores of a remarkable memory, fed many years before by conversations with those whose lives had been passed under the French *régime*. 'Les Anciens Canadiens' has been twice translated into English, the best translation being that of Charles Roberts. One of the ablest prose writers among the French-Canadians to-day is Dr. A. D. de Celles, of Ottawa. Another is Mdlle. Angers ('Laure Canon'). Both are highly regarded for their purity of style and clearness of expression.

Gerin-Lajoie, who wrote many years ago a song which has grown with the very life of Quebec—a simple little song, expressing the home-sickness of a French-Canadian exiled from his home—was also the author of a very readable tale of pioneer life, 'Jean Rivard.' Lacombe, Chauveau, Bourassa, and Marmette have also contributed to the fiction of French Canada at different periods.

An American writer, whose critical acumen is as marked as his talent for fiction, William Dean Howells, said of the contemporary group of Canadian poets that 'it could hardly be matched among ourselves (the Americans) for the fresh and distinctive quality of the work.' Coming from an American, this opinion is not without force and significance. The best Canadian poetry will bear comparison with almost anything now written in the English language. It has two prevailing characteristics—a deep love for the Land of the Maple, the dear North Land and an abiding faith in her destiny. Clear-hearted and clear-headed, Canadian poets express themselves for the most part simply, directly, without affectation, and without that cynicism which not infrequently marks contemporary English verse.

The love for the homeland finds expression in many ways, notably in interpreting her wonderfully varied moods. It has been written of one of the truest of Canadian poets, the late Archibald Lampman, that 'not a scent, or sound, or sight of the Canadian summer was lost upon his quick sense . . . the stir of leaf, of wing,

of foot; the drifting odours of wood and field; the colours of flowers, of skies, of dusty roads and shadowy streams and solitary lakes, all so preciously new, gave his reader the thrill of the intense life of the northern solstice.' As Lampman interpreted the life of open field and shady woodland, so William Wilfrid Campbell has painted glowing word-pictures of the constantly varying aspects of Canada's great inland seas, and Charles Roberts and his cousin, Bliss Carman, have sung the praises of the provinces down by the sea. The intense patriotism of the Canadian is expressed in such verses as these from 'The Canadian Home-Song'—

'Oh, land of the dusky balsam,
And the darling maple-tree,
Where the cedar buds and berries,
And the pine grows strong and free;
My heart is weary and weary
For my own country.'

Or in Roberts' stirring appeal—

'O Child of Nations, giant-limbed,
Who stand'st among the nations now
Unheeded, unadorned, unhymned,
With unanointed brow,—
. . . . . .
Wake, and behold how night is done,
How on thy breast, and o'er thy brow,
Bursts the uprising sun.'

The love of the mother country finds expression in such poems as Campbell's 'Jubilee Ode'—

'Across the thunder of the Western foam,
O good, gray Queen, our hearts go home, go home,
To thine and thee.
We are thine own while empires rise and wane,
We are thine own for blessing or for bane,
And, come the shock of thundering war again,
For death or victory.'

Heavysege, Reade, Murray, D. C. Scott, Charles Mair, Miss Wetherald, Miss I. V. Crawford, Miss McManus,

Mrs. Christie ('Annie Rothwell'), Dr. O'Hagan, and Mrs. Harrison have their characteristic merits. John Reade's 'Ode on Dominion Day' was the first poem to recognise the significance of the Canadian Confederation. It was highly commended by Whittier. The Rev. F. G. Scott has written some fine thoughtful verse. Charles Mair's 'Tecumseh' is a dramatic expression of Canadian loyalty, based on the war of 1812. Equally patriotic, though of slighter merit, is Mrs. S. A. Curzon's 'Laura Secord.' In poetic value Mr. W. W. Campbell's tragedies, 'Mordred' and 'Hildebrand,' contest the palm with the once extolled 'Saul' of Heavysege.

French-Canadian literature has produced many poets, some of whom, like Louis Fréchette and the late Octave Crémazie, have earned warm praise from the exacting critics of France. Fréchette is without a peer among Canadian poets, whether French or English, in the grace and perfect finish of his verse. His short lyrics are equal to anything of the kind produced in France since the death of Victor Hugo, and in his longer poems, such as 'La decouverte du Mississippi,' he has developed a breadth of treatment which is, in its way, even more impressive. Adolphe Poisson, Lusignan, Lemay, Chauveau, Le Noir, Sulte, Marsais, and Bedard have also found favour with their compatriots.

Probably, however, the most remarkable body of literature belonging to French Canada are the *chansons* or folk-songs of the people. Some of these old songs came over originally from Old France, and have been gradually changed to suit the circumstances of the new world. Others are the product of Colonial genius. Many of them were gathered together a few years ago by an enthusiastic French-Canadian, Ernest Gagnon, and published in a large volume, with the airs to which they are sung. In many cases Mr. Gagnon preserved a *chanson* which had almost become extinct, after having been handed down for generations in the oral traditions of the people. One of the most popular of these songs is called

'A la Claire Fontaine,' the words and air of which are familiar to every French-Canadian. It begins—

'A la claire fontaine,
M'en allant promener,
J'ai trouvé l'eau si belle,
Que je m'y suis baigné,'

and so on through nine stanzas, each followed by the refrain:

'I'ya longtemps que je t'aime,
Jamais je ne t'oublierai.' *

Another song, which has always been immensely popular with the French-Canadian lumbermen—the *habitants* of the woods—is 'En roulant ma boule.' In the glorious twilight of a Canadian midsummer's evening, sitting on the banks of the Ottawa, one might until recently enjoy a sensation which in its peculiar charm is beyond description. Indistinguishable at first from the many sounds that mingle in the air, there would at last come from far up the stream the faintest ghost of a refrain; momentarily it gained in volume and distinctness, until at length it rose clear and strong above all other sounds, and burst into a rollicking chorus, borne across the water from a dozen powerful throats, as the great raft of logs from the far North floated past, on its long journey to Montreal or Quebec—

'Derrièr' chez nous, ya-t-un étang,
En roulant ma boule.
Trois beaux canards s'en vont baignant,
En roulant ma boule.
Rouli, roulant, ma boule roulant,
En roulant ma boule roulant,
En roulant ma boule.'

Several attempts have been made to translate these songs into English, those of George T. Lanigan and William McLennan being, perhaps, the most successful.

* This song was sung by the late Sir George Cartier for the present King while on his visit to Canada in 1860.

But their charm is too intangible, too evanescent, to bear transplanting into another and alien tongue.

Canadian history seems at first sight to have been altogether too brief to furnish adequate scope for the ambitious historian. Yet Dr. Kingsford's 'History of Canada' fills ten large volumes, and only comes down to 1840. Dent's 'Last Forty Years' furnishes a reliable continuation of Kingsford's work, down to comparatively recent years. McMullen, Withrow, and others have also covered the field more or less satisfactorily. Each of the provinces has been treated historically by one or more writers, and there are many admirable special histories, such as Dr. Hannay's 'History of the War of 1812' and 'Acadia,' Sir Sandford Fleming's 'New to Old Westminster,' Professor Bryce's 'History of the Hudson's Bay Company,' and Gerald Hart's 'Fall of New France.' As long ago as 1837 a French-Canadian historian, Michel Bibaud, wrote a 'Histoire du Canada,' followed a few years later by Garneau's 'History,' still regarded as a standard work. The most complete history of the French-Canadians is that of Benjamin Sulte. The scholarly and impartial history of Abbé Ferland would have been invaluable if it had been carried to a later date, but it ends with the close of the French *régime*.

Biography in Canada has been largely devoted to political subjects. Joseph Pope's 'Life of Sir John Macdonald,' Mackenzie's 'Life of George Brown,' Hincks' 'Reminiscences,' Buckingham and Ross' 'Life of Alexander Mackenzie,' Read's 'Life of Simcoe' and 'Brock,' and Willison's 'Sir Wilfrid Laurier' are examples of Canadian biography. A good deal of Canadian biographical and bibliographical material is contained in such works of reference as Dr. Morgan's 'Sketches of Celebrated Canadians,' the first work in this department published in British North America; his 'Bibliotheca Canadensis,' 'Canadian Men and Women of the Time,' and his 'Types of Canadian Women.' In these works hundreds of names have been saved from oblivion;

by these scores of writers have profited, often without any acknowledgment.*

It may not be strictly proper to include Professor Goldwin Smith in a sketch of Canadian literature; yet by long residence, as well as by the subject-matter of several of his books, it would be equally improper to omit him. As scholar, historian, and writer of pure, forcible English, Professor Smith is probably without a peer among living writers of English. As a stylist he represents a class which has pretty well vanished from the earth. Politically he is a thorn in the flesh to all true-hearted Canadians, for he will not be persuaded that Canada is not ready to drop like a ripe plum in the welcoming lap of the United States; but intellectually he is a giant whom we are all glad to have among us. His influence has been in many ways beneficent, as in other directions has been that of McGee, the late Principal Grant, Morley Punshon, and Professor Clark, of Trinity University.

No sketch of Canadian literature would be complete without mention of the group of literary, musical, and other critics who have done so much to encourage high ideals of literature, music, and art among us. Many of these, such as John Reade (the learned and genial 'R. V.' of the *Montreal Gazette*), George Murray, and W. W. Campbell, are well known in other departments of literature. Professor Shortt, George Murray of Montreal, Mrs. Coleman ('Kit'), Miss Durand, Miss Warnock, Miss MacMurchy, Mrs. Clare Fitz-Gibbon, Mr. Vogt, Mr. Parkhurst, and others are all agencies in the intellectual life of the country.

Among the factors which tend to encourage intellectual activity in Canada, none is more important than the existence of a number of vigorous literary, historical, and

* A Toronto publisher is now issuing a series of well-written biographies, under the general title, 'Makers of Canada,' the authors including such well-known men as Hon. J. W. Longley, Benjamin Sulte, Dr. De Celles, one of the Librarians of Parliament, the late Sir John Bourinot, Lady Edgar, etc.

scientific societies, both English and French. The oldest of these is the Literary and Historical Society of Quebec, which was founded by Lord Dalhousie in 1824, and has been of invaluable assistance to historical students by digging out of long-forgotten repositories, and publishing in the society's Transactions many extremely rare and valuable manuscripts connected with the early history of Canada.

A little over twenty years ago a number of Canadian men of letters met together at McGill University, on the invitation of the Marquess of Lorne, then Governor-General of Canada, to consider the advisability of establishing a society 'which would bring together representatives of both the French and English Canadian elements of the population of Canada, for purposes of common study and the discussion of such subjects as might be profitable to the Dominion.' Out of this meeting grew the Royal Society of Canada. Sir J. W. (then Dr.) Dawson was the first president, and among the eighty Fellows were such well-known men as Dr. Thomas Sterry Hunt, the eminent chemist; Sir Daniel Wilson, President of Toronto University; Professor Lawson, the distinguished botanist; Dr. Selwyn, Director of the Geological Survey of Canada; Professor Goldwin Smith, Sir Sandford Fleming, John Reade, Abbé Casgrain, Hon. Pierre J. O. Chauveau, Charles Lindsey, Judge Routhier, Rev. Moses Harvey, Benjamin Sulte, Sir James LeMoine, etc.*

* The Royal Society of Canada, as at present constituted, consists of the following members :—

Founder: The Duke of Argyll, K.G., G.C.M.G.; *Honorary President:* The Earl Grey, G.C.M.G., Governor-General of Canada; *President:* Benjamin Sulte; *Vice-President:* Dr. Alexander Johnson; *Hon. Secretary:* Dr. S. E. Dawson; *Hon. Treasurer:* Dr. James Fletcher.

Fellows:

I.—French Literature, History, Archæology, etc.

Beauchemin, Nérée, M.D., Yamachiche, P.Q.
Bégin, Mgr. L. N., Archevêque de Québec, Quebec.
Bellemare, Raphael, LL.D., Montreal.
Chapais, l'Hon. Thomas, Lit.D., Quebec.

Younger than the Quebec Literary and Historical Society, but older than the Royal Society, the Canadian Institute, supported by such distinguished men as Sir

Charland, Père Paul V., Lit.D., Fall River, Mass., E.U.
David, Hon. L. O., Montreal.
De Cazes, Paul, Lit.D., Quebec.
De Celles, A. D., LL.D., Lit.D., Ottawa.
Dionne, N. E., Lit.D., Quebec.
Fabre, Hector, C.M.G., Paris, France.
Fréchette, Louis, C.M.G., LL.D., Lit.D., Montreal (past president).
Gagnon, Ernest, Lit.D., Quebec.
Gérin, Léon, Ottawa.
Gosselin, l'Abbé Auguste, Lit.D., St. Charles de Bellechasse, P.Q.
Legendre, Napoléon, Lit.D., Quebec.
Le May, Pamphile, Lit.D., Quebec.
Le Moine, Sir J. M., LL.D., Quebec (past president).
Paquet, Mgr. L. A., D.D., Quebec.
Poirier, Hon. Pascal, senator, Shediac, N.B.
Poisson, Adolphe, Lit.D., Arthabaskaville, P.Q.
Prud'homme, Judge L. A., St. Boniface, Man.
Routhier, Chief Justice A. B., LL.D., Lit.D., Quebec.
Roy, l'Abbé Camille, Lit.D., Quebec.
Roy, Joseph Edmond, Lit.D., Levis, P.Q.
Sulte, Benjamin, Ottawa (president).

II.—English Literature, History, Archæology, etc.

Bryce, Rev. George, M.A., LL.D., Winnipeg, Man.
Burwash, Rev. Nathaniel, S.T.D., LL.D., Toronto.
Campbell, W. Wilfred, Ottawa.
Clark, Rev. W. R., D.C.L., LL.D., Toronto (past-president).
Dawson, S. E., Lit.D., Ottawa.
Denison, Lt.-Col. G. T., B.C.L., Toronto (past-president).
Drummond, W. H., M.D., Montreal.
Harvey, Arthur, Toronto.
Howley, Most Rev. Archbishop M. F., D.D., St. John's, Newfoundland.
Gordon, Rev. Charles W., Winnipeg.
Le Sueur, W.D., LL.D., Ottawa.
Lighthall, William Douw, M.A., B.C.L., F.R.S.L., Montreal.
Longley, Hon. J. W., LL.D., M.L.A., Halifax, N.S.
Morgan, Henry J., LL.D., F.R.S.N.A., Ottawa.
Murray, George, B.A. (Oxon.), Montreal.
Murray, Rev. J. Clark, LL.D., Montreal.
O'Brien, Most Rev. Dr., Archbishop of Halifax, Halifax, N.S. (past president).
Parkin, G. R., C.M.G., LL.D., Toronto.
Reade, John, F.R.S.L., Montreal.
Ross, Hon. Geo. W., LL.D., Toronto.

Sandford Fleming, Sir Daniel Wilson, the Rev. Dr. McCaul, the Rev. Dr. Scadding, and others, has done a work that is most creditable to its promoters. The

Scott, D. Campbell, Ottawa.
Scott, Rev. Frederick George, LL.D., Quebec.
Stewart, George, D.C.L., LL.D., D.L., F.R.G.S., Quebec.
Watson, Prof. J., M.A., LL.D., Kingston.
Willison, John S., Toronto.
Withrow, Rev. W. H., D.D., Toronto.

III.—Mathematical, Physical, and Chemical Sciences.

Baillairgé, C., C.E., Quebec.
Baker, Alfred, M.A., Toronto.
Barnes, H. T., D.Sc., Montreal.
Bovey, H. T., M.A. (Cantab.), LL.D., D.C.L., M.Inst.C.E., F.R.S., Montreal.
Cox, John, M.A. (Cantab.), Montreal.
Dawson, W. Bell, D.Sc., Ma.E., Assoc. M.Inst.C.E., Ottawa.
Deville, E., LL.D., Ottawa.
Dupuis, N. F., M.A., F.R.S.E., Kingston.
Ellis, W. H., M.D., Toronto.
Fleming, Sir Sandford, K.C.M.G., LL.D., C.E., Ottawa (past president).
Girdwood, G. P., M.D., Montreal.
Glashan, J. C., LL.D., Ottawa.
Goodwin, W. L., D.Sc., Kingston.
Hamel, Mgr., M.A., Quebec (past president).
Harrington, B. J., B.A., Ph.D., Montreal.
Hoffmann, G. C., F.Inst.Chem., LL.D., Ottawa.
Johnson, A., LL.D., Montreal.
Keefer, T. C., C.M.G., C.E., Ottawa (past president).
Loudon, J. T., M.A., LL.D., Toronto (past president).
Macfarlane, T., M.E., Ottawa.
McGill, A., Ottawa.
McLennan, J. C., Ph.D., Toronto.
Miller, W. Lash, Ph.D., Toronto.
McLeod, C. H., M.E., Montreal.
Owens, R. B., M.Sc., Montreal.
Rutherford, E., B.A. (Cantab.), A.M., F.R.S., Montreal.
Ruttan, R. F., M.D., C.M., Montreal.
Shutt, F. T., M.A., F.I.C., F.C.S., Ottawa.
Stupart, R. F., Toronto.
Walker, J. Wallace, M.A., Ph.D., Montreal.

IV.—Geological and Biological Sciences.

Adami, J. G., M.A., M.D. (Cantab. and McGill), LL.D., F.R.S.E., F.R.S., Montreal.
Adams, Frank D., Ph.D., D.Sc., F.G.S., Montreal.
Ami, Henry M., M.A., D.Sc., F.G.S., Ottawa.
Bailey, L. W., M.A., Ph.D., Fredericton.
Barlow, A. E., M.A., D.Sc., Ottawa.
Bell, Robert, B.Ap.Sc., M.D., LL.D., F.G.S., F.R.S., Ottawa.

Montreal Natural History Society, which dates from 1829, should also be mentioned, especially in connexion with its annual Sommerville course of lectures.

Literary institutes have always been popular in the province of Quebec, and the cities of Montreal, Quebec, Three Rivers, and Sorel have hardly ever been without them. Public lectures by eminent French-Canadians have likewise formed an important part of their programme, and their influence upon the intellectual life of the people of Quebec has been considerable.

Another important factor in Canadian literature is the existence of native periodicals. While in this respect Canada is far behind either England or the United States, she has never lacked, during the last three-quarters of a century, one or more periodicals open to native writers. The importance of these magazines, especially in the earlier days when English and American

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Bethune, Rev. C. J. S., M.A., D.C.L., London, Ont.
Burgess, T. J. W., M.D., Montreal.
Coleman, A. P., M.A., Ph.D., Toronto.
Ells, R. W., LL.D., F.G.S.A., Ottawa.
Fletcher, James, LL.D., F.L.S., Ottawa.
Fowler, James, M.A., Kingston.
Gilpin, Edwin, M.A., F.G.S., Halifax.
Grant, Sir J. A., K.C.M.G., M.D., F.G.S., Ottawa (past president).
Hay, G. U., M.A., Ph.D., St. John, N.B.
Harrington, W. Hague, Ottawa.
Laflamme, Abbé J. C. K., D.D., M.A., Quebec (past president).
Lambe, Lawrence M., F.G.S., Ottawa.
Macallum, A. B., Ph.D., Toronto.
Macoun, J., M.A., F.L.S., Ottawa.
MacKay, A. H., LL.D., B.Sc., Halifax.
Matthew, G. F., M.A., D.Sc., St. John, N.B.
Mills, T. Wesley, M.A., M.D., Montreal.
Penhallow, D. P., B.Sc., Montreal.
Poole, H. S., M.A., C.E., F.G.S., Halifax, Nova Scotia.
Prince, E. E., B.A., F.L.S., Ottawa.
Saunders, W., LL.D., F.L.S., Ottawa.
Taylor, Rev. G. W., Nanaimo, B.C.
Whiteaves, J.F., LL.D., F.G.S., Ottowa.
Wright, R. Ramsay, M.A., B.Sc., Toronto.

periodicals were shy of Colonial contributions, and Canadian publishers were practically unknown, can hardly be over-estimated. If they did nothing more, they furnished an effective safety-valve for the pent-up feelings of native genius.

The oldest Canadian magazine, like the oldest Canadian newspaper, belonged to Nova Scotia—the *Nova Scotia Magazine*, first published in 1789 at Halifax; and the second similarly belonged to the city of Quebec, the *Quebec Magazine*, 1791–93. A score of years later the first French-Canadian magazine appeared, *L'Abeile Canadienne*, and a few years later the *Bibliothèque Canadienne*, published at Montreal. The first of a long series of 'Canadian magazines' appeared at Montreal in 1823. Among the more important of subsequent French-Canadian periodicals have been the *Revue Canadienne*, *Soirées Canadiennes*, *Le Foyer Canadien*, *Revue de Montreal*, and *Revue Nationale*. In English-speaking Canada, the more important magazines have been, the *Canadian Review*, edited by Dr. A. J. Christie; the *Literary Garland*, edited by John Gibson, which existed for twelve or thirteen years—an exceptionally long period for a Canadian magazine—and counted among its contributors Mrs. Traill and Mrs. Moodie, two of the famous Strickland sisters, Madame Leprohon, Miss Louisa Murray, 'Tiger' Dunlop, etc.; the *British American Magazine;* the *New Dominion Monthly;* the *Canadian Monthly*, edited by Professor Goldwin Smith, and later by G. Mercer Adam; *Stewart's Quarterly;* the *Dominion Illustrated Monthly; The Week*, and the present *Canadian Magazine*, the most successful and enduring of them all. These are but a few of the many Canadian magazines which, under various titles, lived for a brief space, and then dropped into oblivion, only to give place to others. The invincible optimism of Canadian publishers and editors in bringing out magazine after magazine, when the accumulated experience of the past pointed to almost certain failure, is one of the most striking facts in the intellectual

history of the country. In the field of historical research, special mention should be made of the *Bulletin des Recherches Historiques*, published and edited by Mr. P. G. Roy, of Levis, P.O., which is very highly regarded in literary circles.

Before leaving this subject of Canadian magazines, one must not forget to mention the little group of humorous periodicals, the most notable of which was *Grip*, established by the Canadian cartoonist J. W. Bengough in 1873, and edited by him, with remarkable ability, for nearly twenty years. *Grip* was preceded by several other humorous magazines, the earliest of which seems to have been *Punch in Canada*, published in Montreal about the middle of the last century by T. B. DeWalden. The *Grumbler*, edited in Toronto by W. J. Rattray and the late Chief Justice Moss; *Poker*, edited by the late Chief Justice Harrison and Henry J. Morgan; the *Latchkey*, established by James McCarroll; the *Free Lance*, founded by George T. Lanigan, author of the amusing threnody 'The Akhoond of Swat' and 'Diogenes,' edited for a time by George Murray, were all short-lived periodicals of the same humorous character. The chief political cartoonists of to-day, after Bengough, are Samuel Hunter, N. McConnell, A. G. Racey, and Alonzo Ryan.

'The art of Canada to-day,' says Mr. J. W. L. Forster, R.C.A., 'is a mingling of elements. Native Canadians are a minority in the professional societies. The influence of the old world may be seen in the work of many who cherish still the precepts of their masters. Our native artists who have studied abroad are very much inclined to paint a Canadian sky with the haze of Western Europe, and our verdure as though it grew upon foreign soil. Our art is not Canadian. The French school rules the art of Europe. The British is the only school distinct from it. Canada furnishes the arena in which the forces of these rival schools contend.'

No one is better entitled to speak authoritatively of Canadian art and artists than Mr. Forster (himself an

eminent Canadian artist), yet one may venture to say that his judgment in this instance is open to question. Every one familiar with the work of Canadian artists must admit the influence of European standards upon that work; but it is altogether too sweeping a statement to say that there is no such thing as a Canadian art. Mr. Forster's own achievements disprove his criticism, and one might cite a score of other Canadian artists, past and present, whose work, not only in subject and inspiration, but in execution also, is emphatically Canadian. This is not to say that there is anything like a distinctively Canadian school of art. That may come in time; though it is not necessarily a thing to be desired. But it is possible to say that much of the best and most representative Canadian art reveals not only individuality, but a certain spirit or atmosphere by which you recognise it as Canadian, wherever you find it.

In the Parliament Buildings at Ottawa the visitor is shown a series of very spirited paintings, illustrative of Indian life and character, the work of Paul Kane. Kane was born in 1810 in Ireland, but came at an early age to Upper Canada. Gifted with the art-hunger, he managed, entirely by his own exertions, to pay his way to Europe, where he spent four years in France and Italy, studying the works of the masters, ancient and modern. He then returned to Canada, determined, in his own words, 'to devote whatever talents and proficiency I possessed to the painting of a series of pictures illustrative of the North American Indians and scenery.' How amply he fulfilled this good resolution every one will admit who has read his 'Wanderings of an Artist amongst the Indians of North America,' or has seen the splendid series of pictures he painted for the late Senator George W. Allan, of Toronto, or those already mentioned, in the Library of Parliament.

Daniel Fowler, another early painter, was a Canadian also by adoption. He came to Canada in middle life, but did much of his best work amid Canadian scenes.

An interesting story is told of his first meeting with Jacobi, one of the leading artists in Montreal, forty or fifty years ago. An exhibition had been held, to which both Jacobi and Fowler (then unknown in Canada) contributed water colours. The prize was awarded to Jacobi, who at once objected to the decision, insisting that a Hollyhock piece by Fowler was better than his own, and should be awarded the prize. The judging committee was somewhat nonplussed, but finally reached a compromise, by dividing the prize between Jacobi and Fowler. Fowler duly received the half prize, but knew nothing of the circumstances, and concluded that he had been defrauded out of what he believed to be his due reward. He went to Jacobi's studio and peremptorily demanded an explanation. Jacobi took it in good part, and contented himself with referring Fowler to the committee on awards. Fowler went, and returning to the studio in an hour, strode up to Jacobi with extended hand and beaming face, apologised for his former rudeness, and expressed his unbounded appreciation of Jacobi's generous recognition of the work of a stranger. Both Jacobi and Fowler subsequently became members of the Royal Canadian Academy.

Interesting though the subject is, it is impossible to say much here of the other early artists of Canada, George Theodore Berthon, Benoni Irwin, Hoffner Meyer, William Berczy, Le Clear, Creswell, Napoleon Bourassa, Antoine Plamondon, James Duncan, Thoxtull Hamel, Cornelius Kreighoff, Allan Edson, Morris, Field, Verner, Way, and others. One of the most promising of Canadian artists was Adolphe Vogt, born at Montreal about 1842. His animal work was remarkable, and he would undoubtedly have won universal recognition but for his untimely death.

Of contemporary Canadian artists one of the best known was the late Lucius Richard O'Brien, R.C.A., for ten years President of the Royal Canadian Academy of Arts. Mr. O'Brien's strength lies in landscape work.

He painted two pictures of Quebec by command of her late Majesty Queen Victoria, and also executed several pictures for the Princess Louise. Some of his most interesting work is contained in a series of paintings of the magnificent scenery of the Rockies and the Selkirk range.

Robert Harris, the present President of the Royal Canadian Academy, is known principally as a figure and portrait painter. One of his early pictures, 'The School Trustees,' is in the National Gallery at Ottawa, as well as 'The Fathers of Confederation,' executed under commission from the Dominion Government. Among the most successful of his portraits are those of the Earl of Aberdeen, Sir John Macdonald, Sir Oliver Mowat, Lord Mount Stephen, and Sir William Dawson.

Frederic Marlett Bell-Smith has done good work both as a landscape painter and portraiture. His best-known work is contained in the two canvases, of heroic size, commemorating the death of Sir John Thompson, the former Prime Minister of Canada, at Windsor Castle.

The late John Alexander Fraser, who, like Mr. Bell-Smith, is a member of the Royal Canadian Academy, has won distinction in water colours. His pictures have received the unusual honours of being hung on the line at the Royal Academy and the French Salon.

Homer Watson, whom Professor Mavor, of the University of Toronto, an art critic of acknowledged standing, pronounces to be 'easily the first of Canadian landscape painters resident in Canada;' G. A. Reid, whose *genre* work is very popular; J. C. Forbes, a Canadian artist of great merit, who has been recently commissioned by the Canadian House of Commons to paint a full-length portrait of his Majesty King Edward for the adornment of that chamber; William Brymner, whose landscapes have been exhibited both at the Paris Salon and the London Academy; Henry Sandham, who executed one of the best portraits of Sir John Macdonald, and excels as a historical painter; Henri Beau, a French-Canadian, whose pictures of the dispersion of the

Acadians, and of Champlain's arrival at Quebec, have given him a recognised standing in his province; Franklin Brownell, of Ottawa, who painted an admirable portrait of the Canadian poet William Wilfrid Campbell; Edmund Wyly Grier; Andrew Dickson Patterson; Ernest Thompson Seton, whose animal illustrations in his most delightful books, 'Wild Animals I have Known,' 'Lives of the Hunted,' etc., have won wide praise from art critics; W. A. Sherwood; T. M. Martin; M. M. Matthews; Suzor Coté, and several others, are all Canadian artists of acknowledged ability, and even more brilliant promise. In Paul Peel, who died in 1892, at the early age of thirty-two, Canadian art lost one of her ablest exponents. He studied for several years under Gèrome, Lefevre, and Benjamin Constant, and won a gold medal at the Salon of 1890 for his painting 'After the Bath.'

The development of the art of sculpture in Canada is still in its infant stages. Philippe Hébert, W. S. Allward, and Hamilton McCarthy are the three leading exponents. M. Hébert has done some really remarkable work in bronze for both the Dominion and Quebec Governments. His statues of Queen Victoria and of Sir John Macdonald and Sir G. E. Cartier on Parliament Hill, Ottawa, are well known to every visitor to the Canadian capital. One of his most ambitious creations is the heroic figure of Champlain, which now stands on Dufferin Terrace, Quebec, in front of the Château Frontenac. He also produced a number of historical statues for the Legislative Buildings at Quebec, and a statue of Maisonneuve for the city of Montreal. Allward, quite a young man, has come quickly into notice by his statue of General Simcoe, the first Governor of Upper Canada, recently erected in Toronto by public subscription, and by a beautifully designed monument to the late Nicholas Flood Davin, which has been placed over the orator's grave in Beechwood Cemetery, Ottawa. He has also designed a monument about to be raised by the Provincial Government in Toronto to the memory of the late Sir Oliver Mowat,

one of the fathers of Confederation, and one to the Canadian soldiers who fell in South Africa.

Much of Mr. McCarthy's work is found at Toronto, such as his statue of Sir John Macdonald, in front of the Parliament Buildings; the statue to Colonel Williams at Port Hope; and the bronze statue of Dr. Ryerson, founder of the school system of Ontario. Among his works in the Maritime Provinces is one, in Nova Scotia, in memory of Lieutenant Borden, who fell in South Africa, and the soldiers' memorials at Halifax and Charlottetown. During the last session of the Dominion Parliament, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Prime Minister, announced that the Government intended erecting in Ottawa a series of monuments of Canadian statesmen, among which would be one of Thomas D'Arcy McGee, one of the 'Fathers of Confederation,' to whom reference is made in several places in this volume. Perhaps the most ambitious effort of the kind, however, will be the equestrian monument to Lord Strathcona and the Canadian veterans of the South African War, which is now being erected by the citizens of Montreal in Dominion Square in that city. Mr. E. W. Hill is the designer. The cost will be $30,000.

In his sketch of art in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces, in a recent publication, Robert Harris, R.C.A., says that the 'most potent influence on Canadian art in late years has no doubt been the founding of the Royal Canadian Academy, which, by raising the standard in its exhibitions and affording the exhibitors the benefit of a jury of professional artists, has been of great use.' Another contributor to the same work, Mr. W. A. Sherwood, A.R.C.A., in writing of the national aspect of Canadian art, remarks: 'The arrival of the Marquess of Lorne and the Princess Louise was hailed with delight by the Canadian art fraternity. It was known that her Royal Highness was more than an amateur* and that

* One need only mention her admirable water-colours and her well-known statue of her late Majesty at Montreal.

she would likely take some interest in the work in their country. This anticipation was more than realised when on March 6, 1880, the Royal Canadian Academy of Arts was instituted.' The example of the Princess and her public-spirited husband was fruitful in more than one respect. It diffused a love for art among those who had the means of indulging it by the purchase of paintings and sculptures. Without being invidious, it seems impossible to avoid mentioning, in this connexion, Lord Strathcona, Hon. G. W. Allan, Lord Mount Stephen, Sir W. C. Van Horne, Sir George Drummond, R. B. Angus, the late Peter Redpath, and the late Allan Gilmour.

Music has always been cultivated in Canada in connexion with the ritual of the Roman Catholic Church. Under the British *régime*, the Church of England has also done much to foster musical taste. In recent years, the Church of Scotland and the other Protestant Churches have been at no small pains and expense to procure the best sacred music.

Musical societies have been organised in the Dominion during the last fifty years, and there are several flourishing schools, notably the Toronto College of Music, of which Dr. F. H. Torrington, who has been aptly called the 'Father of Oratorio,' is principal; the Toronto Conservatory of Music; the Metropolitan School of Music, also of Toronto; the Ottawa Conservatory of Music; the McGill Conservatorium of Music, recently established through the generosity of Lord Strathcona; the Montreal College of Music; and the Winnipeg College of Music. These schools have each a teaching staff of competent professors, who are doing much to develop and strengthen the musical talent of the country.*

The University of McGill grants the diploma of the Associated Board of the Royal Academy of Music and the Royal College of Music, London. Toronto University

* Mrs. Travers Lewis, widow of Archbishop Lewis, of Ontario, has given several scholarships, for Canadians, in the Royal College of Music, London.

has founded a system of its own of local examinations, and confers the Bachelor's degree in music. Trinity College, Toronto, also possesses degree-conferring powers in music.

Madame Albani-Gye, *née* Emma Lajeunesse, is the musical pride of Canada. She disproves, for once, the old saying that a prophet is not without honour save in his own country. No singer, whether Melba or Nordica, or even the great Patti, has ever received a warmer or more enthusiastic reception in Canada than Madame Albani. As Mr. C. A. E. Harriss has well said, her 'devotion to her art and womanhood has set a standard of excellence for all who aspire to professional careers to follow her exampled life.'

Madame Albani, though the greatest, is by no means the only prominent Canadian singer. Miss Beverley Robinson (now Mrs. Stewart Houston), who sang with Albani on one of her Canadian tours; Miss Hope Morgan; Mlle. Attalie Claire, who has supported both Patti and Albani; Mlle. le Boutillier; Miss Newman; Miss Lightstone; Miss Nora Hillary; Mlle. Nita Carritte; Madame Jehin Prume, wife of the Canadian artist of that name; Miss Ada Moylan; Miss Fiset, of Quebec; Harold Jarvis, Joseph Saucier, and several others, have won recognition both at home and abroad.

The most recent, and in some respects the most remarkable, figure in Canadian music is that of Guy Maingy, of Ottawa, whose professional name is Sopra. At the age of twenty Mr. Maingy possesses a soprano voice of remarkable range, purity, and power. His rendering of such numbers as Mozart's 'Dove Song,' Gounod's 'Jewel Song,' and Batten's 'April Morn' leaves his hearers filled with amazement that so clear and full-toned a soprano, without the faintest suggestion of falsetto, could come from a stalwart six-footer. He has studied under competent masters in England, who prophesy great things for the young Canadian, if his phenomenal voice should hold.

As violinists, Miss Nora Clench and Miss Street have won a deserved popularity, both at home and abroad.

In the field of musical composition Canada is yet in its infancy. A few notable works have, however, been published, such as Mr. Harriss' 'Coronation Mass,' composed for the Cycle of Musical Festivals, and dedicated by special permission to his Majesty; the same composer's lyric opera 'Torquil,' produced in 1901 for the Patriotic Fund for Canadian Soldiers in the South African War; his dramatic cantata, 'Daniel before the King;' and his 'Festival Mass.' Mr. Arthur Fisher's 'Wreck of the Hesperus;' Angelo M. Read's 'David's Lament;' and several technical studies for the pianoforte by A. S. Vogt should also be mentioned.

The most notable event in Canadian musical history was the Cycle of Musical Festivals, conceived and organised by Mr. Harriss before mentioned, and carried out in the spring of 1903 with remarkable success. The cycle extended from Halifax, on the Atlantic coast, to Victoria on the Pacific, and covered every important town in the Dominion. Choral societies in the various cities were utilised to make up the choruses, and over three thousand new voices were brought into life, in towns where no choral society existed. The work of preparation was taken up with enthusiasm by musical men and women throughout the country, under Mr. Harriss' able direction, and the excellence of the result was testified to by Sir Alexander Mackenzie, who presided as conductor-in-chief of the festivals, and by Madame Clary, Madame Blanvelt, Mr. Ben Davies, Mr. Watkin Mills, Mr. Wilfrid Virgo, and the other eminent soloists who took part in the concerts. The chief credit for the cycle is due to Mr. Harriss, who conceived the idea, bore the entire burden, and devoted his whole time for a period of two years to organising and perfecting the project. The object of the cycle was to advance the cause of music throughout the Dominion upon broad and general lines, and to make known to Canadians generally the works of British composers. Of

the long list of works performed, the majority of the choral compositions were new to Canadian audiences, and, strange to say, as regards the orchestral list, entirely so. Novelties were produced almost simultaneously with their introduction in the mother land, such as Stanford's 'Irish Rhapsody' and Mackenzie's suite 'London Day by Day.'

Patriotic and other songs, by Canadian writers and composers, have become widely popular in the Dominion. This is notably the case in Quebec, where such songs as Gerin-Lajoie's 'Le Canadien Errant,' and the stirring 'Vive la Canadienne!' may almost be said to be part of the life of the people. 'Vive la Canadienne!' is sung after all concerts and social gatherings, in connexion with the National Anthem. It may almost be regarded as the national song of the French-Canadians. 'The Maple Leaf for Ever,' the words and music of which are by a Toronto schoolmaster, Mr. Alexander Muir, fills the same position in the other provinces as 'Vive la Canadienne!' does in Quebec. It is also the marching tune of several of the Volunteer Militia regiments.

In the theatrical profession Canada is also holding her own—the names of Charlotte Nickinson, Clara Morris, Margaret Mather, Mrs. Stuart Robson, Julia Arthur, Margaret Anglin, McKee Rankin, and Franklin McLeay, all of whom are native and to the manner born, being a sufficient proof of the truth of our statement.

CHAPTER XII

RELIGIOUS THOUGHT

DURING the French *régime*—that is, from early in the seventeenth century until the cession of Canada to Great Britain—the history of the Church of Rome was, in great measure, the history of the country. While it shared in the movements that affected its fortunes in the Old World, the Church in Canada during this eventful period had a character of its own that marks it off from any other branch or section of the 'Church militant here on earth.' It may be viewed under three phases. It is, in the first place, essentially a missionary organisation, whether its work be carried on under the influence of the reformed Franciscans, known as Recollets, or under that of the Order of Loyola, or under the Sulpicians. It had its triumphs, but they were more than matched by trials and disappointments. It contributed a brave and saintly roll of martyrs to the Church calendar. It dared the perils of the wilderness from Hudson's Bay to the Gulf of Mexico; from the Atlantic to within sight of the great stony mountains, which, in later generations, it crossed to establish missions from the Columbia to the Yukon. This Church is thus known in the annals of exploration as well as of evangelisation. Some of its achievements are among the most fruitful in three centuries. Its sons helped to trace a route to and beyond the Mississippi; they knew Chicago more than a century before it became to moderns a habitation of men; they had crossed the

height of land to Lake Mistasinni two hundred years before Canada's geologists and surveyors had set foot near it. If after all their labours they failed to subdue the ferocity and heathen perversity of the Indians, with the exception of a few fragments, those fragments should be very precious in the eyes of all Christians, for they were redeemed by hardship, starvation, tortures, and death. Those who have read Parkman's volumes on the great conflict of the French and English in North America, and especially his book on the pioneers and on the Jesuits, will know what their record was in the Huron peninsula, in the bleak wastes of Labrador, and among the tribes of the West and South.

Before the foundation of the bishopric of Quebec, missionaries had carried the good tidings of salvation as far as the southern shores of Lake Michigan. In the year 1658 François de Laval, Abbé de Montigny, was consecrated in the Benedictine Abbey of St. Germain des Près as Bishop of Petræa (*in partibus*) and Vicar Apostolic. In 1674 Bishop Laval, having laboured earnestly on behalf of both French and Indians, and waged war against the liquor traffic, had the satisfaction to see his vast jurisdiction constituted a bishopric. He sustained the burden of his many responsibilities for thirty years. In 1685 Mgr. de St. Valier was sent to Canada to serve as his coadjutor. Three years later he became second Bishop of Quebec. He had much influence at the Court of Louis XIV., and was a man of great determination. He departed materially from the system that his predecessor had deemed best adapted for the infant Colonial Church. Mgr. de St. Valier, having large means, was a generous helper of Canadian institutions, to which he contributed about £25,000, besides what he obtained from powerful friends. In 1714 his increasing charge induced him to ask for assistance, but Mgr. Duplessis de Mornay, who was appointed his coadjutor, never set foot in Canada. Two years after Mgr. de St. Valier's death in 1727, Mgr. de Mornay's coadjutor, Mgr. Pierre H. Dosquet, arrived in Canada

and took sole charge of the diocese. He did much for the promotion of education, but his health compelled his return to France in 1735. On his resignation M. Pourroy de l'Auberivière was consecrated as his successor, but unfortunately died of ship fever soon after his arrival at Quebec in 1740. In 1741 Mgr. de Pontbriand, the last Bishop of Quebec of the old *régime*, came to Canada. He had the grief, as he closed his laborious episcopate, to see the colony pass from France to England.

The early history of the Church under the new dispensation was marred by conflict and uncertainty. For a time (1760–66) authority was vested in a committee of three priests, the Government being unwilling that either Rome or France should have any share in the ecclesiastical administration. It was then intimated to M. Briand by the Governor that no objection would be made to his consecration. In 1772 he obtained permission for the consecration of a coadjutor, Mgr. Mariauchau d'Esglis, who was a native of Canada. In 1774 a crisis in the fortunes of the Roman Catholic Church, and in those of Canada as a whole, was caused by the passage of the Quebec Act—that is, an Act for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec in North America. In the fifth and some ensuing articles of that Act provision is made for the freedom as to discipline and workings of the Church of Rome, and for the enjoyment by the clergy of their accustomed 'dues and rights.' The legal position of the Church of Rome in Canada is thus set forth in a judgment rendered by Mr. Justice Girouard of the Supreme Court of Canada in the case *Renaud* v. *Lamothe* (32 Sup. Ct. Rep. 373)—

'At the date of the cession of the colony to Great Britain, the Catholic Church was the only religion recognised in the country. The Capitulation of Quebec and Montreal and the Treaty of Cession did not, it is true, recognise the Catholic Church as the State Church, but the free exercise of this Church was guaranteed without any restriction. These stipulations have as much authority

as the statutes of the Empire, and it has never entered the head of any legislature to disregard them. Quite the contrary. By the Quebec Act the right of the parish priest in the province of Quebec to his tithes, which had been reserved in the Capitulation of Montreal, was legalised; and by the laws subsequently passed by the colonial legislature, even before Confederation, the construction of Catholic Churches in the province of Quebec was encouraged by the creation of a privilege-bearing hypothec on the immovable properties of its members. This right has not been given to the other Churches, not even to the Church of England, which has never had the privilege of raising tithes, a privilege which it claimed at first, but which was refused by the English authorities. It may be said that if the Catholic Church is not the natural religion of the great majority of the inhabitants of the province of Quebec, it is nevertheless established by exception and by international treaties and by the laws of the Empire.'

Mgr. Briand lived to see some other questions settled and many new questions opened for discussion. He survived the cession more than a third of a century, and saw the province of Quebec severed from the Western port country of his youth by the Constitutional Act of 1791. Mgr. d'Esglis and Mgr. Bailly predeceased him, and Mgr. Hubert only survived him three years. In nine years Mgr. Hubert consecrated three bishops, ordained fifty-three priests, and confirmed forty-five thousand members of the Church. Mgr. Denault succeeded Mgr. Hubert in 1797. In 1801 Mgr. J. O. Plessis was chosen to be h coadjutor and, on his death, took his place as eleven Bishop of Quebec. He was also (though he never assume the title) the first Archbishop of Quebec. His career is more eventful perhaps than that of any other prelate o the mother see. He was a man of importance long befo his episcopate began. He was a man of proved discr tion, unassuming yet firm in his convictions, and one the ablest champions of his Church and right to whc

Canada had given birth. He was in part of New England Puritan descent—a descent that is not without its threads of romance. As Curé of Quebec, it fell to him to deliver the sermon on the death of Mgr. Briand, in whom passed away a much revered bond of association with the old *régime*. That sermon is a tribute to the humanity and consideration of the British Government both towards French Canada and Old France, then (1794) terrorised by the Revolution. The Roman Catholic clergy had not, indeed, waited till that day of distress to express their loyalty to the British Crown. It was mainly through their influence that in the critical years of the American revolt Canada stood faithful to her new rulers. It was his conviction that, notwithstanding the actions of prejudiced or meagrely informed officials who for a time represented them, British statesmen were generously disposed towards his Church, and that by patience, candour, and firmness, distrust and misunderstanding would ultimately disappear. And his confidence was not betrayed. For years before his death (December 4, 1825) Archbishop Plessis had the happiness to witness permanent good relations established between the Church and the authorities.

Until this time the interest centres in a single diocese. But in the first year of Archbishop B. C. Panet's episcopate, the Rev. Alexander Macdonell was consecrated Bishop of Kingston (February 14, 1826). Some years later, Bishop (afterwards Cardinal) Weld was appointed his coadjutor, but that munificent churchman never crossed the Atlantic. The Church in the Maritime Provinces has had an interesting history which dates back to the early years of the seventeenth century. The Jesuit, Recollet, and Sulpician orders were at different times engaged in ministering to the natives and settlers. After the Treaty of Utrecht there was a good deal of trouble with the governors owing to the estrangement of the Acadians from the British Crown, and, after much disputing, the harsh policy of expulsion was resorted to. The

later course of the colonial authorities in the Maritime Provinces towards the King's Roman Catholic subjects was extremely liberal—the penal laws, then on the statute book, having been relaxed as early as 1783. Scotch, Irish, and other immigration and the repatriation of many Acadians increased the Roman Catholic population. The Right Rev. Edmund Burke (titular Bishop of Sion), who had been Vicar-General of Nova Scotia since 1817 and had then been a veteran missionary, was, on his death in 1821, succeeded by the Right Rev. Bernard A. McEachern, who, in 1829, was consecrated Bishop of Charlottetown (which also comprised New Brunswick and Northern Maine). In 1842 Nova Scotia was created a diocese. By subdivision these dioceses were gradually formed into the actual sees of Halifax (1845) (archbishopric); Antigonish (1844); St. John (1843); and Chatham (1860).

Meanwhile, subdivision and expansion were multiplying the chief pastorates west of Quebec until no square mile between Kingston and the island city of Victoria was without episcopal and sacerdotal oversight. In 1842 Toronto was made a diocese, with Dr. Power its first bishop. In 1870 Bishop Lynch, Bishop de Charbonnel's successor, was raised to the archiepiscopal dignity. St. Boniface, in the Red River Colony (now Manitoba), was made a see in 1847, with Mgr. Provencher as the bishop. In the same year Vancouver Island, and in 1864 New Westminster, was also given a bishop (Mgr. L. J. d'Herbomez). In the Far North vicariates apostolic were set apart, which comprised the vast territory that was fringed by the frozen Arctic Ocean. Subdivision had formed the dioceses of Montreal, Nicolet, Valleyfield, Rimouski, Three Rivers, St. Hyacinthe, Sherbrooke, Chicoutimi, London, Hamilton, Ottawa (archbishopric), and St. Albert. These names stand for an extent and diversity of apostolic labour to which it would require many volumes to do justice.

For some years the Pope has been directly represented

in Canada by a Délégué Apostolique. The present holder of the office, who was appointed in November, 1902, is Mgr. Donato Sbarretti, whose residence is at Ottawa.

The oldest portion of Canada as a dependency of Great Britain is the region that was formerly called Acadia or Acadie, generally represented to-day by the Maritime Provinces. But from 1713—the date of the Treaty of Utrecht—until 1749, when the city of Halifax was founded, hardly any data are available to show what the Church of England had done either in missions to the Indians or in ministration to non-Catholic civilised inhabitants. Dr. Partridge, Dean of Fredericton, has, indeed, found a record of help from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts to the support of schoolmasters at Annapolis (1729–38), and at Canso (1736–43). It was not, however, until after 1749, when the colonisation of Nova Scotia was inaugurated, that any definite and persevering attempt was made for the supply of regular religious services to members of the Church within what is now the Dominion. The arrival of Governor Cornwallis at Chebucto marks the initial point to which our retrospect may be directed when we would take heed of the progress accomplished. Between 1749 and 1759, when Wolfe's victory secured Quebec and ultimately the whole of Canada for the British Crown, Halifax and the new settlements of which it was the centre were by no means left shepherdless. St. George's Church and St. Paul's Church were founded at Halifax, and congregations were also organised at Lunenberg and elsewhere. Among the early clergymen of Nova Scotia were the Rev. Messrs. Anwell, Moreau (formerly prior of an abbey at Brest), Tutty, Wood, De la Roche, and Bryzelius. Other labourers in the field, who took up new ground as the population increased, were Rev. Messrs. Binger, Vincent, Bennett, Ellis, Bailey, and Eagleson—all pioneers and faithful servants in a good cause. The great schism in the English race occasioned by the American Revolution affected the Church of England in

the New World for good as well as for evil. One result that it brought about was the extension of the episcopate not only to the United States, but also the Colonies.

That the Church in New York, New England, and Virginia should for so long have been left without chief pastors, so that without recourse to England neither could clergymen be ordained nor baptized members be confirmed, is a neglect for which it is useless to seek excuse. To-day all Church historians admit that it was without justification. When the clergy and laity who had sided with the revolt found their cause successful, they also found themselves threatened with an estrangement which they had not sought. For, being without bishops, they had no means of perpetuating the ministry and ordinances of the Church unless the hierarchy of the mother land came to their help. After a time their plea was hearkened to, first in Scotland and afterwards in England, so that the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States derives its succession from two different sources. As a consequence of a corresponding movement on behalf of Canada, the Rev. Charles Inglis, D.D., was on August 12, 1787, consecrated Bishop of Nova Scotia. In the previous year the clergy of the Maritime Provinces comprised, in Nova Scotia, the Rev. Dr. Breynton, Halifax; Rev. Jacob Bailey, Annapolis; Rev. P. de la Roche, Lunenburg; Rev. W. Ellis, Windsor; Rev. J. Wiswell, Cornwallis, Horton, and Wilmot; Rev. J. Eagleson, Cumberland; Rev. Roger Viets, Digby; Rev. G. Panton, Yarmouth; Rev. J. W. Weeks, Halifax; Rev. Isaac Brown, superannuated; and in New Brunswick, Rev. S. Cooke, Fredericton; Rev. John Beardsley, Maugerville; Rev. James Scovil, Samuel Andrews, Richard Clark, and George Bisset (afterwards at St. John), and Rev. Mather Byles, St. John.

The new bishop, son of an Irish clergyman, was, on the outbreak of the rebellion, assistant to Rev. Dr. Auchmuty, rector of Trinity Church, New York. In 1777 he was elected rector. In the following year the

STREAM THROUGH ANTIGONISH VILLAGE, NOVA SCOTIA.

University of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of D.D. So many loyalists had preceded him from the rebellious colonies to his new home, that to a good many of them he needed no introduction at all. He soon found plenty to do. His diocese extended to Montreal and as far west of it as inhabitants professing Protestantism could be found.

In Quebec and Montreal there had been a few members of the Church since the transfer of the country to England. The Rev. Dr. Brooke is perhaps better known as the husband of the lady who wrote the first Canadian novel, 'Emily Montagu,' than as the first clergyman of his Church who officiated at Quebec. He held regular service there during the summer of 1760. He also inaugurated a school for the instruction of the children of the garrison. Governor Murray recommended Dr. Brooke to the Home Government as a fit person to take spiritual charge of the Protestants of his jurisdiction. The people, who petitioned in his favour, promised to contribute to his support. Dr. John Ogilvie, a graduate of Yale, and a friend of Bishop Inglis, was first chaplain to the Mohawks who followed Amherst, and later to the 60th Regiment. He took charge, at Amherst's desire, of the Montreal congregation during the winter of 1760–61. Returning to Quebec he laboured with Dr. Brooke until 1763. By-and-by he was sent back to Montreal, where, we are told, he became first incumbent of the 'parish' as well as chaplain to the forces. He baptised a hundred children, and had sometimes from thirty to forty communicants. Returning to New York, Dr. Ogilvie became assistant minister at Trinity Church, and most acceptably discharged his functions till the close of his life. During his service at Montreal, as afterwards, the congregation had the use of the Recollet Church. On his departure the Rev. S. Bennett took his place.

The ministrations of Mr. Bennett, as well as Dr. Ogilvie, in Montreal, and those of Dr. Brooke in Quebec,

were in 1766 succeeded by a new religious policy which substituted French for English clergymen. Three reverend gentlemen, Messrs. Chadbrand Delisle, De Montmollin, and De Veyssiere were associated for some years with the congregations of Montreal, Quebec, and Three Rivers respectively. A fourth was appointed to Sorel, but never did any duty there. The Rev. Thomas C. H. Scott served there for a time as chaplain, but, though a clever man, did not satisfy the authorities. He was succeeded there by the Rev. Mr. Doty, whose arrival in 1784 marks the beginning of a new dispensation, that of the loyalists, Rev. Drs. Doty, Bryan, and Stuart, with some ten thousand other exiles. These settled largely through the Eastern and Southern parts of what is now Ontario, where the churchmen among them formed the germ of the now prosperous dioceses of Ontario, Ottawa, Toronto, Huron, Niagara, and Algoma. Dr. Stuart's work did much to build up the Church in the wilderness. He had his home at Kingston, but made periodical visits through his extensive mission, journeying as far as Niagara, and not forgetting the loyal Indians. Three Englishmen also arrived, Messrs. Toose, Tunstall, and Langbourne—the last of whom took work in the Western country, where his name is still remembered, while some of Mr. Tunstall's descendants are still in the Montreal district. The official registers of these early clergymen are important documents. Those of Messrs. Delisle and Langbourne have been published.

From the foregoing sketch, it will be seen that, if Bishop Inglis' diocese did not contain a large population, it was of vast extent, and that to reach its limits was no easy task. In the summer of 1786 he visited Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal, and was well received everywhere. It soon became evident that one bishop was not capable of doing justice to so great an extent of thinly peopled country, and in July, 1793, Dr. Jacob Mountain, of the elder branch of the family of Montaigne, the essayist, was consecrated at Lambeth Palace first

Bishop of Quebec. The history of the new diocese under Bishop Jacob Mountain, Bishop Stewart (a son of the Earl of Galloway), and Bishop George J. Mountain is a history that is full of interest, both from the characters of those devout men and the nature and extent of their work. When the first Bishop of Quebec made his first visitation, in 1794, there were six clergymen in Lower and three in Upper Canada. But after the return of peace in 1815 immigration from the old lands began to fill up the Western country. When Bishop Jacob Mountain died, in 1826, there were sixty-one clergymen in his diocese. Ten years later Bishop Stewart asked for a coadjutor. He died in the following year, and Dr. G. J. Mountain, who had been appointed coadjutor, with the title of Bishop of Montreal, became his successor. It was not, however, until 1850 that the Montreal diocese was really constituted, Dr. Francis Fulford being appointed first bishop of that see. Meanwhile, in the second year of his episcopate, Bishop G. J. Mountain had been considerably relieved by the appointment of Archdeacon Strachan as first Bishop of Toronto. In 1845 Fredericton diocese had been separated from Nova Scotia, and the Right Rev. Dr. John Medley began his long episcopate. Dr. Stanser's ill-health made the choice of that clergyman as Bishop Charles Inglis' successor an unhappy one, for he was never able to reach his diocese after consecration. On his death in March, 1825, Bishop John Inglis took charge of the diocese. He died in London in 1850, and the Rev. Hibbert Binney, a native of Cape Breton, but by education an Oxonian, became his successor.

The middle of the century showed the still parted provinces of what is now called Eastern Canada under the jurisdiction of the five prelates already mentioned—Bishops Binney, Medley, G. J. Mountain, Fulford, and Strachan. It was about this time that the expediency of synodal action began to be discussed. The question had been so far settled during the ensuing ten years that by 1859 (the diocese of Huron having been constituted

under Bishop Benjamin Cronyn in 1857) the province of Canada, Upper and Lower (the Ontario and Quebec of to-day) were formed into an ecclesiastical province under a metropolitan. This office was first held by Bishop Fulford, Bishop Oxenden succeeding him by virtue of the original patent, which made Montreal the metropolitical see. Provincial synods have been held triennially since September, 1861. During the decade 1860-70 two more dioceses were formed, Ontario (1861) and Algoma (1873), Bishops Lewis and Fauquier being the first respective occupants of those sees. In 1875 another diocese, that of Niagara, was constituted, with Dr. Fuller as its bishop. In the preceding year the dioceses of Nova Scotia and Fredericton had entered the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan. On Bishop Ashton Oxenden's resignation, it was decided, after much controversy, owing to the difficulty of electing at once a Bishop of Montreal and a metropolitan, to put the choice in the hands of the House of Bishops. It has since devolved by official seniority. Dr. Medley, Bishop of Fredericton; Dr. Lewis, Archbishop of Ontario, and Dr. Bond, Archbishop of Montreal, have since then successively held it.

Meanwhile, under somewhat different auspices, the missionary dioceses of Western Canada or Trans-Superior had been growing in number and strength. In 1873 Rupert's Land, first administered by Bishop Anderson, to whom, in 1866, Bishop Machray succeeded, was subdivided and formed into a province, of which the bishop became metropolitan. In 1893 a movement for the unification of the Church culminated in the formation of a general synod, of which Bishop Machray was elected president, with the title of primate, the two metropolitans having already been raised to the dignity of archbishops.

Of Protestant denominations, Presbyterianism was the first that had a footing in Canada. When Henri IV. lived, Calvinists were more than tolerated. Even after his assassination they continued for a time to be represented among the leaders of enterprise even in the St.

Lawrence Valley, and from Acadie they did not entirely disappear until the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Two episodes are associated with a resurgence of Protestantism at Quebec and Port Royal—the conquest and rule of the Kirks and the colonisation scheme of Sir William Alexander, Earl of Stirling. Both of them suffered from the *punica fides* which had so much to do in arming Englishmen and Scots against each other. From 1713 to 1749 there may have been some resurgence of Presbyterianism in Nova Scotia, but there are but scanty records to support the hypothesis. Doubtless, among the immigrants of 1749 there were British or foreign members, or adherents of Presbyterian communions. It was not, however, till a later period that any form of Scottish Presbyterianism took organic shape in New Scotland. A Dutch settler, with gifts for exposition, named Comingoe, was ordained as early as July, 1770, to minister to the reformed of Lunenburg; but it was not till 1786 that the Presbytery of Truro was organised, in connexion with the Burgher Synod of Scotland. In 1795 the Presbytery of Pictou was constituted in connexion with the anti-Burgher Synod. In 1817 these synods and some ministers of Old Kirk united to form the Synod of the Presbyterian Church of Nova Scotia, with three Presbyteries—Truro, Pictou, and Halifax. In the province of Quebec, military chaplains were the pioneers of Presbyterianism, and, as they were connected with the Established Church, the Old Kirk took the lead for many years. After remaining some time in Montreal, the Rev. John Bethune went to Upper Canada, where he was the first Presbyterian minister. Until 1817 there was no permanent presbyterial organisation in either Lower or Upper Canada, but the Presbytery of the Canadas was formed in 1818. In the whole of Canada at that time there were about 50 ministers and about 90,000 adherents of the Presbyterian faith and worship. In 1831 was organised the Synod of the Presbyterian Church of Scotland in connexion with the

Church of Scotland, with 19 ministers on its roll. In 1840 an amalgamation took place between the Presbytery of the Canadas and the Old Kirk Presbytery. An event was then at hand, however, which affected the friends of Presbyterianism not only in Canada, but in Scotland, the United Kingdom, and all over the world. This was the disruption of 1843, which gave to secession its last and greatest victory. Of the Church of Scotland Synod in Nova Scotia a large majority joined the new Free Church, and became, after a time (an early name being discarded), the Synod of the Free Church of Nova Scotia. In New Brunswick, on the other hand, the majority adhered to the Establishment. Before the third of a century had gone by a desire for union became an overmastering sentiment among the separated Presbyterian Synods of Canada, whose differences were almost purely traditional. The question of uniting with advantage to all, and without detriment to any of the constituents of the proposed united Church, was earnestly deliberated upon, and was the theme of carefully written treatises. A few stood out against the union, but ultimately the great majority conceded that it was right as well as expedient. In 1861 the Free and United Presbyterian Churches united, and became the Canada Presbyterian Church. On June 15, 1875, this last body and the Synods of the Lower and Maritime Provinces and of the Presbyterian Church of Canada in connexion with the Church of Scotland consummated the union for which earnest souls of all the four organisations had long yearned—the new organisation being called the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Canada. The Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, the Westminster Confession of Faith, and the larger and shorter Catechisms, and the Directory of the Public Worship of God were the standards of faith and polity of the Church. Long before the union in 1875, Presbyterianism had conquered its share of Canada's great West. At the last meeting in Toronto of the Presbyterian Church in Canada, the

Moderator, Rev. Dr. Warden, while recording a falling off in some of the young people's societies, was happy to point to steady progress in almost every department of the Church's work. There were 58 presbyteries, including 1368 ordained ministers, of whom 1198 were pastors of congregations, professors, or filling other positions to which the assembly had appointed them. Of self-supporting charges there were 783, embracing 1152 congregations; of charges helped by the Augmentation Fund there were 203, comprising 370 congregations. There were also 506 home mission fields, with 1461 stations, where services are held. The elders numbered 7559; the families, 118,114; the communicants, 219,470, a gain of 5799 in the year. The contributions of the year amounted to $1,052,691 towards ministers' salaries, and $2,857,489 for all purposes. The value of property held by the congregations was over ten million dollars, with debt to the amount of about a million and a half. The number of Sabbath schools connected with the Church was 3196, with 21,717 teachers and officers, and 182,335 scholars. According to the census of 1901, the Presbyterians of the Dominion numbered 842,442. In 1891 the Presbyterian population was 755,326.

The story of the beginnings of Wesleyan Methodism in Canada has been written by Stevens, Carroll, Ryerson, Withrow, Carman, and others. According to Ryerson, it was from the British army that the first preachers in both Upper and Lower Canada were derived. In the one case the pioneer was Major Neal, a cavalry officer, who reached Niagara on October 7, 1786; in the other, the first preacher was Mr. Tuffy, of the 44th Regiment of Foot, who arrived at Quebec in 1780. Dr. Carman, without contradicting Dr. Ryerson, says that the first organic Methodism in Canada was from the United States. In Nova Scotia several Yorkshire Methodist families settled as early as 1779, at one of whose prayer meetings near Amherst, William Black, afterwards known as Bishop Black, was converted. Of the good accomplished

by these and other evangelists from the Atlantic to Lake Superior, in laying the religious and moral foundations of Eastern Canada, and of the great work carried on by like agencies at a later period in Western Canada, there is but one report. The twofold form in which it originated had on Canadian Methodism consequences characteristic of both its sources. In the main these consequences were happy; but it was impossible that political considerations and the estrangement due to rival Church politics should not cause offences to come. The war of 1812 emphasised certain antipathies against Methodist preachers who were also Americans. Later on, the English Conference sent out ministers. A compact formed as to the division of territory failing to be strictly observed, the antagonism increased. The upshot was that, while all were loyal to Methodist principles, some adhered to the episcopacy introduced from across the border, while the majority adopted the presbyteriate of English usage. In 1828, by a two-thirds' majority of the General Conference at Pittsburg, the Methodist Church in Canada, previously under its jurisdiction, was recognised as independent, though still in fraternal connexion with the mother Church. The Ryan secession impaired for a time the good results of this change. The conflicts and changes that followed are by Methodists of to-day only remembered as tests of a persevering faith which had its triumph, not only in the reconciliation of the English and Canadian Conferences, but in the ultimate union of all who bore the Methodist name. In 1874 took place the union of the Wesleyan Conference of Eastern British America with the Conference of the Methodist New Connexion Church, to form the Methodist Church of Canada. The united organisation had 718 ministers with more than 75,000 members, and Church property valued at three and a half million dollars. In 1883 the Methodist Episcopal Church, which had maintained its polity originally that of all Canadian Methodism apart from the larger body for

nearly fifty years, cast in its lot with the Methodist Church of Canada. Two smaller but not unimportant bodies, the Primitive Methodist Communion and the Bible Christians, were joined to the majority—these four societies uniting to form a great Church 'with improved facilities, nobler purposes, higher hopes, and grander achievements.' At the General Conference held in Winnipeg in September, 1902, the general superintendent, Dr. Carman, presented a statement showing the Church membership to be 291,805, an increase of 11,385 in four years. According to the census of 1901, the adherents of Methodism in the Dominion numbered 916,886, as against 847,765, in 1891. Dr. Carman's statement also included the following significant figures: ministers, 1792; probationers, 238; local preachers, 2248; exhorters, 1119; class leaders, 6791; Sabbath schools, 3425; Sabbath school officers and teachers, 33,396; scholars, 272,506; amount raised by these schools, $545,261; young people's societies, 1809; membership of the same, 69,402; amount raised by the same, $245,017; churches, 3413; parsonages, 1208; burial grounds, 1109; colleges (including Victoria University, Toronto) and schools, 22; value of churches, $11,836,410; value of parsonages and furniture, $2,173,554; value of college and school property, $2,168,164; value of book and publishing property, $443,351; total value of Church's property, $16,802,438; raised for ministers, $3,276,661; for circuit purposes, $5,932,001; for all purposes, $10,911,271; church and parsonage debts, $2,520,230. These figures need no comment.

Although a vessel, with the nucleus of a Congregational or Barrowist colony on board, was wrecked near Cape Breton more than three centuries ago, it was not until more than two centuries afterwards that a Congregational minister began definite work in Canada. He had chosen Quebec for his undertaking, and for a couple of years had considerable success. His legal standing was, however, disputed, and he became a martyr

to his zeal, being fined and imprisoned for questioning the justice of the law. That was in the very beginning of the nineteenth century. Twenty years later the Rev. Dr. Wilkes arrived in Montreal from England, and after being in business for a time was induced to give himself to the work of the ministry, and his calling was abundantly successful. He has left a valuable record of his ministrations in Montreal, where he celebrated a happy jubilee some years before his death in 1886. Zion Church will always be identified with his labours. The Rev. Professor Cornish, who held for many years the chair of classical literature at McGill College, was associated with Dr. Wilkes in founding and organising the Congregational College. The Rev. Drs. Tilley, Wilkes, Stevenson, Barbour, and George have successively held the principalship. Among the lay friends of the college have been Mr. George Hague (Merchants' Bank) and Mr. W. C. Smillie. In the Maritime Provinces early Congregationalism is associated with the revival services of an earnest preacher, the Rev. Henry Alleine. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick he and his followers were known as New Light believers. The congregations of his founding ultimately became Baptists of the 'close communion,' although Alleine himself was not an upholder of exclusive Christianity. Some of the churches that he reorganised had an honourable descent from New England Congregationalism, and can trace their Canadian doctrinal history back, in some cases, to 1760. The oldest of these is at Kingsport, N.S.; the next oldest at Yarmouth, N.S. In 1846 the Rev. J. G. Galloway was sent out to St. John, N.B., by the London Colonial Missionary Society, and by his tireless efforts he did much to keep alive the spark of Congregational faith in New Brunswick.

The Rev. Joseph Silcox was the first evangelist of Congregationalism in Ontario. He began his ministry under a somewhat curious name near St. Thomas, and other churches grew up in Toronto, Kingston, and other places. As settlement advanced, the rural districts were

occupied not only in Ontario, but in Quebec. Sherbrooke, in the latter province, which became the centre of work in the Eastern townships, is now a city. Of the names of those who, besides those already mentioned, have worthily served the Congregational cause, may be mentioned, the Rev. Messrs. Duff, Heu de Bourck, Hill, Wild, Warriner, Pedley, Roaf, and Mason. The Congregational Church of Canada has not neglected missions. It is worth mentioning that among those who were influenced by the early preaching of Dr. Wilkes in Glasgow was the father of Dr. David Livingstone, then a boy of thirteen. This is mentioned by the Rev. John Wood in his 'Life of Dr. Wilkes.'

It is probable that there were Baptists among the early settlers who came to Nova Scotia under the auspices of Lord Halifax and Governor Cornwallis (1749), though Dr. Cramp thinks that no Baptist Church was formed before 1776. From that time onward, according to the Rev. Dr. J. A. Wells, the growth of the Baptist Church in the Maritime Provinces was steady and rapid. In 1800 the first Baptist Association was formed at Grenville, N.S. Before the end of the century there were seven associations, with more than four hundred churches, with a total of about fifty thousand members. Loyalist refugees from Connecticut and elsewhere planted the doctrines of the Baptist communion in the province of Quebec. Before the close of the eighteenth century churches had been established by Vermont and Massachusetts missionaries in the Eastern townships. In 1803 the first, or Haldimand Baptist Association, was formed in Eastern Ontario. In 1819 the Upper Canada Association was formed. The Ottawa Association was developed out of Scotch members, shepherded by Scotch pastors, among the founders being the Rev. John Edwards, converted in Edinburgh under the preaching of the Haldanes. The Rev. John Gilmour, a man of power and zeal, was the minister of the first Montreal church, organised in 1830. David George, once a

Virginian slave, after a remarkable career as an evangelist during the Revolutionary War, obtained a licence from the Governor of New Brunswick, and after preaching with success in Shelburne, Liverpool, St. John, and elsewhere, sailed from Halifax to minister to his own people in Sierra Leone. Honour is also due to the Mannings, the Hardings, Thomas Ainsley, Joseph Crandall, Hubbard, and Kendrick. From an early date the Baptists gave much attention to education, and the work of the Rev. Drs. Pryor, Cramp, Spurden, and Fyfe deserves special recognition in this connexion. Most praiseworthy also has been the liberality of the Hon. William McMaster, of Toronto,* and other benefactors to the cause of theological and general education. According to the census of 1901, the number of Baptists in the Dominion was 316,477.

Other religious denominations represented in Canada are Unitarianism, the Reformed Episcopal Church, Christian Science, the Salvation Army, Judaism, Universalism, the New Jerusalem Church or Swedenborgianism, the Society of Friends, the Mennonites, the Doukhobors, Lutheranism, and the African Methodist Episcopal Church. Some of these have had a development in Canada that is curious and interesting, while others have had an influence on the development and direction of religious thought beyond the limits implied by their names. Free thought and philosophic doubt have their adepts and disciples in Canada, as elsewhere. Several of the Churches have their schools of opinion, some of which cling to the past, while others would defy prescription and dare untrodden paths.

A question in which all the Protestant denominations were more or less interested was that of the Clergy Reserves, land set apart by the Constitutional Act of 1791 for the support of a Protestant clergy. After a long and bitter controversy, the question was finally settled by the Imperial and Canadian Acts of 1853 and

* Founder of McMaster University.

HYDRAULIC LIFT LOCK AT PETERBORO', ONTARIO—THE LARGEST LIFT LOCK IN THE WORLD.

1854, by which the reserves were made over to the municipal corporations for secular purposes. In satisfaction of claims of actual beneficiaries, the Church of England received $1,103,405; the Church of Scotland, $509,793, and other Presbyterians, $8,962.

Among other vexed questions of the past may be mentioned the Jesuits' estates, the Dissentient or Separate Schools, the matter of official precedence, the relation of the Roman Catholic clergy to politics, the connexion between political and religious Liberalism in relation to the Church of Rome, once the subject of a Papal Encyclical, and the extent of the Church's power over its members.

In higher as in elementary education, it is not the Church of Rome alone that prefers religious to non-sectarian colleges. Besides Laval University, Bishops' College, Trinity, King's, Queen's, Acadia, Victoria, McMaster, and other universities and colleges were founded, and in the main are still maintained, on a religious basis. The system of affiliation, by which a divinity college of any faith can teach its own tenets while giving its students the highest opportunities for general instruction, has been advantageously applied in Canada. The best example of it, perhaps, is the University of Manitoba, on which an article was published in *Blackwood's Magazine* about fifteen years ago. The danger in Canada is that which has been realised in the United States, of multiplying denominational colleges till they become obstructions to progress.

CHAPTER XIII

THE FINGER OF DESTINY

No one who has read the foregoing pages can escape the conclusion that Fate holds in store for this young Dominion a golden future. From whatever point of view we regard it, the Canadian prospect is full of promise. It is safe to say that the natural resources of the country, viewed as a whole, are absolutely unequalled. Even the United States does not possess either the extent or variety of resources found in Canada. In her vast forests, her coast and inland fisheries, her exhaustless coal deposits, her gold and silver mines, iron, copper, nickel, and nearly every other known variety of mineral, and, above all, in the tremendous possibilities of her grain fields, Canada holds the promise of such commercial prosperity as the world has seldom seen.

And the importance of these resources at present is as nothing to that which they will have in the future. Many of the products which Canada has in abundance are rapidly being exhausted in other countries. When the coal mines of Wales and Pennsylvania are exhausted, Canada will still possess more than enough to supply the world for centuries to come. There is reason to believe that the enormous deposits at Fernie are but the beginning of even more extensive deposits in the unexplored fastnesses of the Rockies. In various parts of British Columbia, in the North-West, around the shores of Hudson's Bay, in Northern Ontario and Northern

Quebec, in New Brunswick, exist many other deposits of coal. Most of this is bituminous, but an extensive deposit of pure anthracite has been worked for some years at Anthracite, on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, in the Rocky Mountains.

A significant fact, that must in the end give Canada a strong advantage over all other competitors, is that she alone among the nations possesses coal and iron deposits in close proximity, and both so situated as to secure cheap transportation. An even more significant fact, from an Imperial point of view, is that inexhaustible deposits of coal exist at the very water's edge in Cape Breton, the most easterly point of North America, and on Vancouver Island, in the extreme West. Thus British fleets, whether on the Atlantic or the Pacific, have here perpetual coaling stations. The seams of coal not only lie along the coast, but run for miles under the sea. Vessels may be coaled almost from the pit's mouth.

Canada's advantageous position in regard to coal is equally marked in the matter of her iron deposits. The enormous iron deposits that exist in many parts of the country have hardly been touched as yet, and must, as the years go by, bring an increasing demand from foreign countries. The nickel deposits in Northern Ontario are far more extensive than those of New Caledonia, the only other serious competitor.

In lumber, and particularly in pulp-wood, the situation is the same. The United States is already depending to a large extent on Canada for pulp-wood, and the export to England is steadily increasing.

Canada will always be primarily an agricultural nation. The wheat-fields of the North-West will inevitably become, as the years go by, her chief source of income. As population flows into the West, and more and more farms are taken up, the surplus for export will climb steadily into hundreds of millions of bushels. For a few years a considerable percentage of the Western surplus will be absorbed by Eastern Canada, for it is already observable

that as Western wheat becomes more plentiful, the farmers of Ontario, Quebec, and the Maritime Provinces are gradually abandoning wheat and other cereals for mixed farming, stock raising, dairying, etc., which are now found to be more profitable under Eastern conditions. But the people of Eastern Canada, under the most favourable conditions, will be unable to use more than a small portion of the enormous surplus that will be available in the West after a decade or two have gone by, and the bulk of it will go to Great Britain and Continental Europe, South Africa, Japan, China, and Australia, enriching the farmers of Manitoba and the North-West, and through them the Canadian merchants and traders of Eastern Canada. The *per capita* wealth of the Dominion (already in excess of Great Britain, the United States, and every other country), will increase year by year. Enormous surpluses will be available in the national treasury for increasing the efficiency of the rail and water routes, so essential to the successful handling of Western harvests. The Grand Trunk Pacific will have become an accomplished fact, and a third and possibly fourth transcontinental railway will be under construction.

It is surprising that the tremendous importance of the Hudson's Bay route to the development of Western Canada has not yet been realised in the Dominion. Now and then a public man is found courageous enough to urge the advantages of the route, but there are powerful vested interests arrayed against it, and years will probably go by before the country sees that no transcontinental railway, nor the most efficient system of canals, *viâ* the St. Lawrence, can in the end do for Western Canada what will be made possible by the opening of the Hudson's Bay route. By this route Western grain can, as has already been pointed out, be laid down in Liverpool several days before it can possibly reach England by any other route, Canadian or American. What this involves will be appreciated when it is remembered that the shortest route means the cheapest carriage, and that

GRAND RIVER, LITTLE METIS, PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

cheap carriage means an increase of wealth to the country for every bushel of grain exported *viâ* Hudson's Bay. Let Canada open this wonderful natural highway —by which vessels from Europe will load their cargoes, not on her Eastern coasts, but in the very heart of the continent—and she will not only secure the carriage of her own grain, at a minimum cost, but she will inevitably capture practically the entire export trade of Western America to Europe, American as well as Canadian. When a fraction of a cent is sufficient to turn the transport of wheat from one route to another, one need be no dreamer to see, once the Hudson's Bay route is established, a network of railway lines converging from all points in the Western wheat country, north and south of the border, toward Fort Churchill, and that little H.B.C. post developing, with more than Western rapidity, into one of the greatest shipping ports in the world.

While Canada's future commercial strength depends so largely upon the successful development of her Western wheat-fields, she is destined to take no mean place among the manufacturing nations of the world. Even now she produces all the staple articles of modern industry, and as her population increases, and home and foreign capital becomes available for the development of Canadian industries, she will not only supply most of her own wants, but will be in a position to compete, and compete successfully, with her foreign rivals in the markets of the world. Under any and all circumstances, Great Britain and the United States are likely to absorb a large percentage of Canada's trade, but other markets are increasing in importance. Direct steamship lines now exist between Canada and Australia, Japan, China, South Africa, and the West Indies, and arrangements have been made for subsidised lines between Canada and France and Canada and Mexico. With all these countries Canada is building up a large and profitable commerce.

What Canada now chiefly needs, to realise the legitimate aspirations of her people, are increased population

and capital. Her five and a half millions of people, energetic and self-reliant as they are, cannot attempt to develop the boundless resources of a country of almost continental proportions. Through the enlightened immigration policy of the present Dominion Government, settlers of the best sort are pouring into Canada in ever-increasing numbers. Many of them are former Canadians, returning from different parts of the United States. The remainder are from the British Isles, from the countries of Northern Europe, and from the Western United States. In every case they add not only numbers but strength to the country. They are never paupers; many of them, in fact, have ample means, which they are investing in large, well-equipped Western Canadian farms. They find here complete political freedom; they are surrounded by a law-abiding people; they are free to enjoy the fruits of their own industry without oppressive taxation. Within a very short time they become as enthusiastic believers in the advantages of Canadian citizenship as the native born. Given a steady influx of this most desirable type of settler, with adequate capital to develop home industries, and one can set no bounds to the future greatness of Canada, commercially or politically.

Much the greater part of outside capital that has hitherto been invested in Canadian enterprises has come from the United States. While it is better, in the interests of the country, that capital should come from the United States than not at all, from an Imperial point of view it would be infinitely preferable that British rather than American money should be utilised to develop the natural resources and industries of the Dominion. Every pound of English money employed in building up the material prosperity of Canada is a link in the chain of Imperial Federation.

This opens up the wider question of the political relations between Canada and the mother country. It is patent to any intelligent observer that the existing relations cannot much longer be maintained. While the country had not

yet got beyond the stage of Colonial childhood, it was right and proper that it should look to England for protection and support; but there is a growing feeling among Canadians that the Dominion should no longer permit British taxpayers to maintain unassisted the naval, military, and diplomatic service of the Empire, of all of which Canada gets the benefit. The world expects, and rightly so, that a grown-up son should either go forth and fight his own battles, or, if he chooses to remain under the parental roof-tree, take his fair share in maintaining the integrity of the common home. It is safe to say that the great majority of the people of Canada do not desire either political or commercial separation from the Empire; but there is only one logical alternative to independence, and that is a Federated Empire. Despite all our efforts to invent some more palatable term, Canada is at present merely a colony of Great Britain. She has no voice in the government of the Empire of which she forms a part. No one familiar with the character of the Canadian people can believe that they will always remain satisfied with the status of a dependency. Incidents such as the Alaskan boundary decision are sufficient to show how the wind blows. The wave of indignation which swept across the Dominion—and which Englishmen regarded with puzzled surprise—was in reality the outcome of an irritating sense of Colonial impotence. Had Canada been free to negotiate a boundary treaty on her own account, or had she done so as an integral and equal portion of the Empire, there would have been no such outburst at an adverse decision. The sore point lay in the fact that, even though two of the three British Commissioners were Canadians, it was impossible to help seeing that the real parties to the agreement were simply and solely Great Britain and the United States. Nominally Canada had a considerable voice in the settlement; actually she had none.

It may be noted here that there is a strong and rapidly increasing national sentiment in Canada. That does not by any means imply a sentiment favourable to

political independence. Quite the reverse is the case. But it does imply a growing consciousness of Canadian nationality — within the Empire. A very prominent note in the Dominion general election of 1904 was the significant cry of 'Canada first, Canada always!' Canadian Clubs are springing up in all the cities and towns of Canada, of which the best men of the community are members, and are also to be found as rallying-points for the Canadian colonies in London, New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cincinnati, and other cities of which Canadians have become permanent or temporary citizens.

It is a favourite saying, both in England and Canada, that the bond that holds the mother land and her Colonies together is one of sentiment. That is true, up to a certain point. Without sentiment, without that intangible something implied in the phrase, 'Blood is thicker than water,' the British Empire could never hope to amount to anything. But we are all familiar with the fact that a state of dependence is never so intolerable as among relations. With a country possessing all the attributes of a nation, except the actual status and power, it would be next to impossible to avoid irritating and dangerous situations.

Englishmen who sometimes resent the fact that Canada, while enjoying the protection afforded by British fleets and British diplomats, pays not a penny toward their maintenance, overlook the vital fact that Canada has at present no say in the matter of fleets, armies, diplomatic service, or any other question pertaining to the Empire as a whole. It is the old rock of taxation without representation, upon which the Thirteen Colonies split, and that rock must be sedulously avoided by both Englishmen and Canadians. Canada owes it to her self-respect that she should no longer accept military and diplomatic protection without assuming her fair share of the financial burdens; but she equally owes it to her self-respect that she should not consent to pay a penny into the Imperial

Exchequer until she has a voice in the government of the Empire.*

The problem of an Imperial Parliament is one of the most difficult that has ever demanded solution from British and Colonial statesmen; but it must be faced sooner or later. It is hard to see how anything short of adequate representation of every portion of the Empire in a truly Imperial Parliament would meet the situation. Parliamentary government is a cardinal doctrine in every British community, home and colonial, and no makeshift of Colonial representation in an Imperial Cabinet, without Colonial representation in an Imperial Parliament, would or could prove satisfactory to the great Colonies over seas.

It must not be forgotten that the inevitable trend of events will gradually change the balance of population and wealth between Great Britain and her Colonies. Canada, to mention no other of the Colonies, is growing faster in every respect than the mother country, and with her vast territory and boundless resources, it is not too much to suppose that, some time in the distant future, the centre of population and wealth will move from England to Canada. This does not imply that the political centre of the Empire need ever be moved from London, but it does emphasise the impossibility of maintaining the existing relations between England and her Colonies as the basis of a permanent scheme for Imperial Federation.

Without for a moment attempting to minimise the wholly inadequate share taken by Canada at present in the maintenance of Imperial defences, it may not be out of place to point to several directions in which, whether designedly or not, Canada has contributed to the strength of the Empire. First of all, the very position of the

* Since this article was written the Dominion Government has voluntarily assumed the entire defence of Canadian territory, thus permitting the withdrawal of the Imperial garrisons at Haffan and Esquimalt, and the closing of the dockyards at the same points.

country itself is a source of strength, furnishing as it does a direct route, over British soil, from England to Asia. Then, the strategic importance of the Canadian route has been immensely enhanced by the building of that great transcontinental railway, the Canadian Pacific, and will be rendered still more important when the Grand Trunk Pacific is completed. To this direct rail route across the continent may be added the existence of immense deposits of coal at either end, on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts.

Canada may also reasonably claim the credit for inaugurating and pushing to completion the Pacific cable, the importance of which, from an Imperial point of view, can hardly be over-estimated. Sir Sandford Fleming was the moving spirit in the Pacific cable project, as another eminent Canadian, the late Mr. F. N. Gisborne, was the father of the first Atlantic cable project. For a score of years Sir Sandford Fleming agitated the question of direct cable connexion between British Columbia and Australasia, in season and out of season, and won in the end a hard-fought battle against the powerful antagonistic interests of the Eastern Extension Cable Company. Australia was for many years lukewarm in the matter, and the attitude of the Imperial Government at times could only be described as hostile; but from the very beginning the Canadian Government gave to the Pacific cable project its warm support, and it is safe to say that without its powerful co-operation it is unlikely that the cable would now be an accomplished fact. Sir Sandford Fleming, not content with the completion of the long-deferred Pacific cable, has been for some time actively pushing the still larger scheme of a system of State-owned British cables around the world, and in this project also he has the support and approval of the Dominion Government. The voluntary offer of a preference to British goods in the Canadian market should not be overlooked, in recapitulating Canadian contributions to the Empire. Neither should we omit the several military contingents

sent by Canada to South Africa. Another factor of importance is the existence, both on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of Canada, of a splendid body of seafaring men—men who by their lifelong and hereditary knowledge of the sea, their physical fitness, and general intelligence, furnish the best possible material for naval reserves. Something has already been done in this direction in Newfoundland, and the Dominion Government has promised its active support in establishing a reserve in the Maritime Provinces. The Government is also about to establish a Naval Training School at Kingston, Ontario, in connexion with the Royal Military College.

The comprehensive scheme for increasing the strength and efficiency of the Canadian Militia, which has been outlined in the chapter on the Militia, while intended primarily for home defence, is no unimportant factor in the broader problem of Imperial defence. With a first line of defence capable of being extended at any time to a strength of one hundred thousand men, and a second line of about equal strength, Canada will become in a few years a military power upon which England can safely count for effective support, in any international crisis affecting the safety or welfare of the Empire.

In these and other respects Canada has contributed at least something toward the strengthening and defence of Imperial interests, and when she assumes her rightful place, as a co-partner, on equal terms with England, in the common Empire, she will be found taking no niggardly share in the burdens of that Empire.

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THE Bibliography which follows has been prepared with a great deal of care, and with every desire to make it as complete as possible. It does not, of course, profess to be anything like an exhaustive Bibliography of Canada. Such a Bibliography would fill every page in this book, and still not be complete. The present Bibliography is designed to include a list of the best and most authoritative works, either by Canadians or others, covering the various topics discussed in 'Canadian Life in Town and Country,' including works of reference; general descriptions of the country, its people, its characteristics, resources, and so forth; histories; books of travel; scientific works; biographies; statistical compilations; collections of folk-lore; and, in fact, everything having a bearing, direct or indirect, upon the wide subject of Canadian life in town and country. Fiction and poetry have alone been omitted, as it would be practically impossible to make a satisfactory selection in these two departments. Canadian fiction and poetry as a whole have been dealt with in the chapter on 'Literature and Art.'

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